

The Nation

VOL. XL.—NO. 1039.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 28, 1885.

The Week.

THE sessions of the National Commercial Convention at Atlanta last week demonstrated the fact that the South has made most encouraging progress toward the acceptance of sound financial views during the past few years. Though formerly it has been the stronghold of opposition to a national bankrupt law and of support for silver coinage, yet on Wednesday, when the question was taken whether the public interests require the enactment of a general bankrupt law, 105 delegates from Southern States voted in the affirmative, as against 127 the other way; while on Thursday, the suspension of silver coinage received the large majority of 133 to 89 votes from the Southern delegates alone. On each question the Northern representatives voted overwhelmingly on the right side, but that was to be expected. The expression of Southern opinion, however, is as surprising as it is gratifying. It is the more striking in the case of the silver question because the Colorado delegates made a peculiarly strong and cunning attempt to secure a coalition of the South and the extreme West; Mr. Symes, the Republican Congressman-elect from that State, going so far as to declare his readiness to defy the party lash at Washington, and support liberal appropriations for the Mississippi River improvement and other Southern schemes, in return for Southern silver votes. The spokesman of South Carolina expressed the feeling of his constituency when he replied that a radical change had taken place since the Bland bill was passed by the aid of Representatives from that State, and that her bankers were now all but unanimous in favor of suspending the coinage. Nothing can arrest this swelling tide of Southern sentiment in favor of sound business policies; and since this decisive vote of the Atlanta Convention, there is an excellent prospect that Congress will pass an act suspending silver coinage early in the next session.

In the Convention on Wednesday Mr. S. Dana Horton, of Ohio, spoke on the silver question from the standpoint of a bi-metallist, in favor of the Senate Finance Committee's bill of last session, which provided for the calling of a new monetary conference, and, in the event of its failure to secure an international agreement for free coinage on a common basis before the 1st of August, 1886, required the Secretary of the Treasury to discontinue the coinage of standard silver dollars. Mr. Horton was a delegate to the Paris conferences of 1878 and 1881, and has sacrificed a great deal of time to the cause of bi-metallism during the past nine years. Mr. Horton and Mr. Francis A. Walker are the leaders of a small but persevering band of economists who believe in the double or alternate standard, and who hold that it is possible

to yoke the two metals, gold and silver, together by law, provided a sufficient number of nations join together for the purpose, so that their relative market values shall remain fixed and unchangeable. They are as much opposed to the single silver standard as to the single gold standard. If, in default of a suitable international agreement, a single standard is necessary for the United States, they would prefer the gold standard because it is the standard of other civilized countries. They have nothing whatever in common with Mr. Bland and his followers. They opposed the Bland bill in the beginning. They accepted the Allison bill, which was substituted in place of Mr. Bland's measure, because it contemplated international bi-metallism and made provision for the Paris Conference of 1878, to which both Mr. Horton and Mr. Walker were sent as delegates. When the Conference failed, they urged the immediate suspension of silver coinage by the United States for the purpose of "putting a pressure" upon Europe, and especially upon England, through the decline in the price of silver, which they believed would be the inevitable consequence. They have since advocated the same policy, and have been supported by Cernuschi, De Laveleye, and most of the bi-metallic theorists of Europe.

The story told by Secretary Whitney in his letter to the Commandant of the Mare Island Navy-yard touching the repairs of the *Mohican* has all the charm of a romance. The *Mohican* is a small wooden ship of about 1,900 tons displacement. As a man-of-war, we need hardly say, she is now worthless. She might, as a cruiser, catch an enemy's sailing vessels in a calm or if the wind were light; but from the fighting ships of any other maritime Power she would have to seek safety in flight. She was taken out of commission in 1872, and instead of being sold or broken up, they set to work to "repair" her. During the thirteen years which have since elapsed, the "repairs" have steadily continued, until now their cost has reached "three times," says Mr. Whitney, "what a new ship of the same character and class could have been built for"—or \$900,000. More extraordinary still, two-thirds of this amount has been spent on her within the last three years, under the administration of Secretary "Bill" Chandler, as true and faithful a Republican as ever trod a deck. Moreover, there was, when the present Administration came into power, no sign that the repairs were near an end. There was apparently no limit to the amount of repairing the *Mohican* could stand. She was evidently a Republican ship, and would bear repairing as long as the party remained in power. Mr. Whitney's letter seems to call for some answer from our old friend "Bill," who is now up in New Hampshire; but we notice from the speeches he has lately been making that what occupies his mind is the condition of the negroes at the South in the matter of the suffrage. It is impossible that under these circumstances he can stop to explain why he repaired the *Mohican* so much. Wait till there is no "solid South,"

till there are no Rebel brigadiers, and, our word for it, he will clear it all up.

Secretary Whitney evidently meant what he said when he wrote his letter of last month to the commandant of the Mare Island Navy-yard about the abuses in the conduct of that establishment. After directing the summary discharge of certain foremen, who were proved to have openly forced their employees to vote the straight party ticket, Mr. Whitney gave notice that "if any similar proceeding, or anything like it, or any attempt to coerce the vote of the employees of the yard by foremen or superior officers should take place hereafter, whether in the interest of the dominant party or otherwise, I will apply a similar remedy." The first enforcement of this order is made at Norfolk, Va. Charges having been made that the recently appointed foreman of ship-smiths and foreman of laborers in the Navy-yard at that point were engaged in running the Democratic City Convention the other day, the commandant of the yard has called upon them to deny the allegation under their signatures or be discharged. He has also prohibited political discussions in the yard, and says that any employee who takes a conspicuous part in politics will lose his position. This is so obviously the correct rule of conduct for a Government establishment that its promulgation should occasion no remark; and yet the adoption of such a rule involves a reform of the greatest importance. The navy-yards have hitherto been run primarily as party machines, and to make them business institutions is to effect a radical transformation in their character. It is most gratifying to find that Secretary Whitney, at least, is in earnest in enforcing the rule laid down in Mr. Cleveland's civil-service reform letter, that not only "offensive partisans" but "their successors" "should be taught that efficiency, fitness, and devotion to public duty are the conditions of their continuance in public place, and that the quiet and unobtrusive exercise of individual political rights is the reasonable measure of their party service."

The good effects of a change in the national Administration are already visible in the management of the New York Custom-house. One of Secretary Manning's first acts, after he took charge of the Treasury Department, was to direct all collectors to cut down the expenses of their establishments as much as should be possible without impairing the efficiency of the service. The result is, that Mr. Robertson finds only \$227,000 needed for the payroll of the New York Custom-house in May, although he demanded \$256,000 on this account for the month preceding the Presidential election. In other words, the Collector confesses that a reduction of a full ninth can be made in the running expenses without harm to the public interests, humiliating as such an admission of extravagant management must necessarily be to him. If Mr. Robertson, with the natural motive to conceal reckless expenditures, has to own

up to the fact that \$29,000 a month can be saved as well as not, there is no question that a thorough overhauling of the establishment by a new chief committed to a businesslike administration would show the feasibility of much more thorough retrenchment. These disclosures regarding the Custom-house, when contrasted with the showing for the Post-office, illustrate the difference between the management of a public office on business principles and its conduct by a professional politician.

Mr. Vilas and every other Democrat who thinks there should be a change made in post-masterships for any other reason than "offensive partisanship" or want of efficiency, should explain to the public in what way Democratic policy differs from Republican policy with regard to post-offices. The business of a post-office is the receipt, despatch, and distribution of letters, the sale of postage stamps, and the giving and cashing of money-orders. Now, in what does the Democratic way of doing these things differ from the Republican way? If it does differ seriously, we ought to have a general change, but we have as yet received no explanation on this point. Have the Democrats a different mode of sorting letters? Would they despatch mails at greater or at less intervals, or by different routes? Are they opposed to free delivery in cities, and would they recur to the old box system? Do they think there is too much letter writing, and that the postage ought to be higher? Are they opposed to postal conventions with monarchical countries or to the admission of letters from European paupers? In a word, what is it in the Democratic view of post-offices which makes it desirable that when a Democratic Administration comes into power, the postmasters should be Democrats? If there be a Democratic way of managing post-offices, the country ought to know what it is, and it ought to be an issue at the elections.

No friend of honest government has any tears to shed over the announcement that the new Administration has begun the removal of the Mahone postmasters in Virginia, and intends to make thorough work of the job. The nonchalance with which the last Administration turned over the Federal patronage in the Old Dominion to a most odious political boss for his personal aggrandizement, marked the lowest depth which the spoils theory of office has touched in this country. Scarcely anything which has happened in the South since the war has done so much to bring the Federal Government into contempt as this ostentatious support by the Republican party of the worst sort of Machine rule in combination with open and avowed repudiation. The cause of public honesty and political morals cannot be better served than by the dislodging of the whole gang of Mahonites now in office.

The nomination of Edmund G. Ross as Governor of New Mexico recalls an interesting period in our political history. Ross is a Wisconsin man, who drifted out to Kansas in the stormy days of its early existence, and became prominent enough in State politics to receive first an appointment by the Governor in 1866 to fill a

vacancy in the United States Senate, and subsequently an election by the Legislature for the unexpired term of more than four years. He cut no great figure at the capital, and was generally counted only as one of the then overwhelming Republican majority in the Senate. When the party managers conceived the scheme of supplanting Andrew Johnson with Ben Wade by the device of an impeachment trial, they never thought of such a thing as the Kansas Senator's taking any other part in the proceedings than to record his answer of "guilty" when he should be asked his judgment as to the President. The rumors of his wavering were a startling surprise, and when his vote, joined with that of the half-dozen other Republican dissentients, served to defeat the carefully worked-up project, the indignation of the Republican leaders knew no bounds. Ross had less reserve of reputation and character to draw upon than Fessenden, Trumbull, and the rest, and he was accused of having been bought to vote for acquittal, though no evidence to sustain the charge was ever produced. When his term expired, he sank into obscurity beneath the storm of obloquy which his course had aroused, and he had hard work for a while to get a chance to make a bare living at his old trade of type-setting. Some years ago he moved to New Mexico and began life over again, and the revolution of last fall has now resulted in giving him a fresh start in politics. He will probably make a good enough Governor of the Territory, but he can never again render the public such signal service as fell to his lot in 1868, when he helped to save the country from a terrible blunder.

The spoilsmen everywhere are indefatigable in their efforts to break down the reform policy. Hardly have the friends of the merit system succeeded in defeating the assault of the politicians in this State, who sought to get in their entering wedge by exempting soldiers from the operation of the Civil-Service Law, when they are called upon to oppose a similar onset in Massachusetts. A member of the Senate the other day introduced a bill authorizing the appointment to office of honorably discharged soldiers and sailors without passing an examination, and it has been rushed through the body almost before the public was aware that it was being considered. The measure was strongly fought by an ex-soldier member, who declared that not a quarter of his old associates wanted any change, since they were perfectly satisfied with the preference which the present law gives them over other applicants who pass examinations with them. The real motive of the other side was frankly confessed by one Senator, who declared that he favored the bill because he was opposed to the whole civil-service reform scheme, which—with the "intense Americanism" that the *Sun* used to admire so much in Mr. Blaine—he denounced as having been "borrowed from China." The close vote of 19 to 16 by which the bill was passed leaves a hope that time to secure an expression of public opinion, and especially of soldier opinion, may secure its defeat in the other branch, as happened in this State; but in any case the incident will serve to show the friends of civil-service reform the

necessity for being constantly on their guard against insidious attempts at its overthrow.

The demoralization in which the Blaine campaign left the Republican party has never before been so forcibly and disgracefully manifested as in the action of the Massachusetts Legislature last week. The lower branch recently passed, by a vote of almost 2 to 1, a so-called Dynamite Bill, which proposed new safeguards against the use of the explosive for the unlawful destruction of life or property, "within or without the commonwealth." The measure appears to have been a reasonable and proper one, such as would have been adopted without question before the days of "Blaine Irishmen." But one of these men was a member of the Legislature, and under his leadership the large Republican majority recanted its previous action and defeated the bill by an overwhelming majority. There were no concealments about the business. The "Blaine Irishman" boldly declared that the Republicans must choose between the friendship of the Irish voters who, like him self, "were convinced by Republican arguments and voted for Mr. Blaine last year," and the duty of denying them the right of making Massachusetts their base of operations with dynamite against Great Britain. In short, they must abandon the attempt to do their duty as civilized men, or lose the support of the dynamiters. This was the naked issue, and when the House, with 166 out of its 240 members Republicans, was called to meet it, it declared three to one in favor of the dynamiters on a viva-voce vote, while the small minority shrank from going on record when a demand was made for the yeas and nays. The Republican party in Massachusetts is thus fairly started on its new line of policy, and it will be interesting to compare the results achieved under the control of its dynamiters with those which followed the somewhat different leadership of its John A. Andrews.

The sale of \$1,740,000 of Connecticut State 3 per cent. bonds at a price slightly above par is a new and striking illustration of the plethora of capital seeking investment on the highest security. Hitherto no borrowers in this country, except the United States Government, have been able to obtain money at as low a rate as 3 per cent., except on the pledge of property in hand sufficient to realize the debt. The sale of Connecticut bonds establishes in one sense the rate of interest on time loans where the risk is at the minimum. The credit of the State of Connecticut is at the present time superior to that of Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, Austria, or Italy, and inferior only to that of the United States.

Bishop Littlejohn, of the Protestant Episcopal Church, is a witness the weight of whose testimony cannot easily be impugned by the religious press when he gives his evidence regarding the relations of the Protestant denominations to the masses in our great cities. The facts bearing on this question which he presented in his annual address before the Convention of his church in Brooklyn last week are most impressive. He shows, in the first place, that the ancient title, "City of Churches," has become a most absurd misnomer for Brooklyn, since

it now has only one place of worship to each 2,624 people, which is a less proportion than is found in any other city in the country. He estimates that nearly a third of the population is not touched, directly or indirectly, by any form of evangelical work, and he confesses that this ratio is annually growing. He reports that the most populous ward in the city, with over 50,000 souls, has but eleven places of worship, "mostly small," while a recent visitation of one portion of this region disclosed the fact that, of 600 families, 450 were without Bibles or any other Christian reading. He closes his address with a vigorous plea for religious work in the city of Brooklyn, whose "uncared-for, unvisited, unchristianized masses appeal to us with a cry more piercing than that from the heart of Asia or Africa, or from the frontiers and Territories of our own land." No more forcible presentation of the growing alienation between the churches and the working classes has ever been made than the confession of this eminent Bishop.

The surrender of Poundmaker, one of Riel's leading Indian allies, with his force of over 2,000 men, leaves only the chief Big Bear with a few hundred followers still in rebellion, and the final collapse of the movement cannot be long postponed. But the embarrassments of the Canadian Government over this matter are by no means ended. The proper disposition of Riel is an exceedingly ugly question. There seems to be little doubt that the fellow is a "crank," and yet there has been too much method in his madness for his performances to be excused as the antics of a lunatic. Moreover, there is no question that some of his grievances were real ones. The issue of land patents, for example, which is the most important exercise of authority in a new country, has been sadly mismanaged, the officials too often playing directly into the hands of the speculators and permitting gross wrongs upon honest settlers. The French element of the population is so thoroughly convinced that Riel had much justification that it will bitterly resent any severity in his treatment. It is also clear that Riel would not have been able to secure the help of the Indians if they had not been exasperated by a long series of frauds perpetrated upon them by the Indian agents of the Government, who have in many cases stolen the larger part of the funds appropriated for the maintenance of their wards.

The Russian budget for the current year has been published. It shows an excess of expenditures over receipts. It is proposed to cover the deficit by a tax on business profits, the equivalent of an income tax of three or four per cent., and by increased customs duties. The estimates are on a peace basis, no allowance being made for the contingency of a war on the frontier of Afghanistan. The embarrassments of the Treasury are increasing from year to year, and there is now a threatened deficiency in the winter-wheat crop from lack of rain.

There is a growing opinion in England that the proper line of defence for India is India itself and not Afghanistan. This conception is opposed to the notions of the pamphleteers and the greater part of the press, but is sup-

ported with force by the Duke of Argyll, by Lord Salisbury, Lord Kimberly, Lord Cranbrook, and by the *Economist* newspaper, which undoubtedly represents in this particular the conservative business interests of the United Kingdom. Since the abatement of the war fever, people have begun to ask themselves what security they have against a fresh advance on the part of Russia, which everybody believes will take place whenever her later conquests shall be secured and her lines of communication perfected. The more this question is agitated, the plainer it appears that Afghanistan cannot serve as a buffer against Russian aggression unless England occupies and fortifies the country. This is exactly what the Afghans will not permit. They have fought for their independence against England in two considerable wars, in both of which they were successful. They are willing to have English help to fight against Russia, but not at the expense of surrendering their fortresses and the command of their armies, nor will they as yet consent to the building of a railroad from Quetta to Herat, which will be an indispensable condition to the defence of the latter whenever the Russian railway shall have been pushed forward to Sarakhs. There is, therefore, says the Duke of Argyll, no logic in a defensive line at a place where the defenders are not allowed to dispose of their forces in their own way and to the best advantage. India, he contends, must rely, as other countries do, upon her own resources and military strength. She has a population exceeding that of Russia, while her financial resources when supplemented by those of England are vastly greater than those of her antagonist. She has the advantage in a war on her northern frontier of proximity to her base, while Russia is weakened for offensive war by every step she takes toward the Suliman range. This range can be rendered practically impregnable by fortifications at an estimated cost of \$25,000,000, or less than half the sum voted to Mr. Gladstone for the military and naval service a few weeks ago. A feeling of security has grown up in London grounded upon these considerations, but it would not be safe for Russia to draw the inference that England will submit to any amount of bullying on the outer line of defence merely because she has an inner line which she considers safe.

There is, even before the general election, which will probably take place in November, some chance of a split in the British Cabinet over the Irish Coercion Act between the Whigs and the Radicals. That is to say, Sir Charles Dilke and Mr. Chamberlain, who represent the Radical element in the Cabinet, are reported to be resolutely opposed to a renewal of the Act and ready to retire if the renewal be proposed; while Sir William Harcourt, and Lord Spencer, who is specially charged with the Irish affairs, are just as strenuous in insisting on the renewal in some shape. The act was passed originally for three years, which are on the point of expiring. Ever since the passage of the Land Act, crime and outrage have been rapidly diminishing, and the country is now on the whole very peaceable. The Radicals say that this is the result of remedial legislation; but the Whigs, in-

cluding Lord Spencer, are satisfied that if the Executive were no longer armed with the powers given by the Coercion Act, outrages would rapidly revive, and life and property in some districts become just as insecure as ever. They point in support of this view to the large number of persons all over the country who now live under special police protection, and who do not believe that if the Act expired they would continue to live at all for many days. The Radicals maintain that as long as the island is ruled by an Englishman who has no relation to the country, and is armed with arbitrary police power, there never will be any permanent restoration of order; that his presence acts, will act, and has always acted as a constant provocation to disorder; that in view of the intense national feeling, which now plays so prominent a part in the Irish problem, the whole machinery of coercion in English hands has on the Irish the effect of a standing insult, the more particularly as there is nothing novel about it, this being the fiftieth Coercion Act passed since the union. Moreover, they believe that the experiment of governing Ireland nominally as part of England under the Constitution, but in reality as a Crown Colony, has totally failed after eighty years of trial, and that its continuance on the eve of an election, which will powerfully reinforce the Nationalist party in the House of Commons, and produce most disastrous effects in bringing into the House a large body of furious partisans, in a revolutionary temper, and bent on mischief.

Denmark, being a small country, is trying to be revolutionary on a small scale. The Folkething, or Lower House, has always had a great animosity to the army, and has repeatedly refused to vote the money required for its support. Now, it has resolved upon a still more radical course, and in order to emphasize its disapproval of the Estrup Ministry, has cut down the official budget by some nine million kroner. The Government has endeavored to persuade the House to pass a provisional budget, but this request has naturally been refused. A complete deadlock is the result. The King is afraid of the leaders of the Left or Liberal party, and does not dare to intrust the reins of government to any one who questions the divine right of monarchs. So he prefers to keep in power a ministry which has but seventeen followers in the Folkething (even some of these being uncertain) and which is detested by the great majority of the people. To account for this singular situation, it must be remembered that the Danish Left, since it made common cause with the extreme radicals, with socialistic proclivities, has lost the confidence of the more conservative middle class; and it is possibly this consciousness on the part of the party leaders (Berg and Boisen) that they have lost more than they have gained by the coalition, which has occasioned the recent split of the Left into two camps, the Danish party and the Europeans. The former constitute the more conservative wing, and adhere to national methods and a progressive national development, while the latter have declared war against the whole existing social order. The two Jews, George and Edward Brandes (the former a well-known man of letters), are the most conspicuous men of this ultra-radical faction.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 20, to THURSDAY, May 26, 1885, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND on Thursday appointed D. V. O'Leary to be Postmaster at Albany, N. Y. R. M. T. Hunter was appointed Collector of Customs for the District of Tappahannock, Va. Forty years ago he was Speaker of the House of Representatives, and was subsequently elected to the United States Senate, where he served for fourteen years, until July, 1861, when he was expelled on the ground of participation in the Rebellion. He was Secretary of State of the Confederacy and a member of the Confederate Senate.

On Saturday the President appointed Walter H. Bunn to be Marshal for the Northern District of New York.

Colonel Frank H. Pierce, a nephew of President Pierce, has been appointed Consul to Matanzas, Cuba.

Mr. G. V. N. Lothrop, recently appointed Minister to Russia, has published a satisfactory reply to the *Tribune's* recent attack upon his integrity as a lawyer. On Friday the House of Representatives of Michigan, ignoring all party lines, passed a resolution unanimously, bearing testimony to his high personal and professional worth, and approving his appointment by President Cleveland.

The bar of Detroit, Mich., at a meeting on Monday, passed resolutions eulogistic of Mr. Lothrop, one of which was as follows: "That the recent republication of an opinion of Justice Potter, of the New York Court of Appeals, concerning the professional conduct of the Hon. G. V. N. Lothrop in the Phoenix Bank case, in a transaction which occurred more than thirty years ago, brings to the attention of this bar nothing which it has not long known, nothing which it has not fully considered, and nothing which has ever shaken or diminished in the smallest degree our unquestioning confidence in Mr. Lothrop as a man and a lawyer of the highest integrity, our esteem for his professional and personal character, and our admiration for his unstained professional life of more than forty years."

Captain George E. Belknap has been ordered to duty as Superintendent of the Naval Observatory in Washington, June 1, to succeed Rear-Admiral Samuel R. Franklin.

Zachariah Montgomery, of California, was on Monday formally appointed Assistant Attorney-General for the Interior Department.

The Postmaster-General has awarded to the American Bank Note Company, of this city, the contract for furnishing postage stamps for the next four years at \$101,516 82 per annum for the ordinary stamps, and \$2,442 79 for postage-due and other issues of stamps, making a total of \$103,959 61 per annum.

The Agricultural Department has \$38 to its credit. Commissioner Colman is in a very great embarrassment. He can do practically nothing until the end of the fiscal year.

An interesting discovery, said to have been made by Appointment-Clerk Higgins in the Treasury Department, is that the records of the departments contain many cases in which Government employees seek to retain their positions on the strength of false claims to military service in the late war.

Geronimo and fifty Chiricahua bucks broke away from the San Carlos Reservation on May 17, and headed for the Sierra Madre Mountains, in Mexico. General Crook ordered all the available troops from Forts Apache, Bowie, Grant, and Thomas in the field, and a company of cavalry from Fort Apache went in hot pursuit. The Indians have massacred a number of people in their flight.

Captain Smith, of the Fourth Cavalry, had a fight last Friday with the Apaches in the Mogollon Mountains, twenty miles west of Alma, N. M. The Indians were routed. On Monday, the soldiers attacked the Indians on the Blue River, Arizona, but were compelled to retreat with three of their number wounded.

By order of the Secretary of War the following telegram was on Monday sent to the commanding generals of the divisions of the Pacific and of the Missouri: "Use every exertion possible, and call for all assistance of Federal troops you may require, to suppress Indian outbreak in Arizona and New Mexico. These outrages must be stopped in the shortest time possible, and every precaution taken to prevent their occurrence in the future."

Judge Bond, of the United States Circuit Court, rendered a decision on Monday at Richmond, Va., concerning the public debt of that State, which gives practical effect to the recent decision of the United States Supreme Court and virtually wipes out everything done by the Virginia Legislature in that direction. He decreed that when a taxpayer tenders coupons for his taxes, he has thereby paid his taxes; that he may deposit his coupons in court, and the clerk thereof shall give him a receipt certifying that by order of Court his tax is paid; that the collector of taxes is forever enjoined from levying upon the taxpayer's property, and that the collector shall pay the costs of each suit he forces the taxpayer to bring.

It is believed that ex-Congressman John Wise will be the Readjuster candidate for Governor of Virginia.

Senator Sherman, of Ohio, has formally announced himself as a candidate for reelection.

The Commercial Convention at Atlanta, Ga., on Wednesday voted 263 to 153 in favor of a national bankrupt law. On Thursday a resolution offered by Mr. Hankey, of Colorado, that the interests of the country require the continued coinage of silver, was defeated by an overwhelming vote. Fully one-half of the Southern delegates voted in the negative. The President and the Treasury officials learned with much satisfaction of this action. President Cleveland has expressed the opinion that the South has in the last few months taken an active interest in the silver question.

The Legislature in extra session at Albany, on Friday, passed a State census bill similar to the one recently vetoed by Governor Hill, and then adjourned sine die. The measure was carried through by the Republicans. Governor Hill says the bill is even worse than the first one. The Democratic members of the Legislature have issued an address to the people on the subject of the State census.

Governor Hill has signed the "Life and Limb" Bill (for protecting employees against rickety scaffolds), the bill to prevent private bankers from holding themselves out as a bank, and two amendments to the Military Code.

The Niagara Park Commissioners at a meeting on Saturday appointed V. Welch assistant secretary, with power to look after the interests of the State until a superintendent is appointed. The Comptroller expects to be at the Falls between July 10 and 15 to pay for land taken. The expectation now is that the park will be opened to the public about July 15 with appropriate services.

Severe tornadoes visited Alton, Ill., and Concord, O., on Sunday, doing considerable damage to property and to the crops in the neighborhood.

Fourteen girls and one young man perished in a fire at a printing establishment in Cincinnati on Thursday afternoon. The fire was checked in fifteen minutes, and caused a pecuniary loss of only \$5,000. There was no fire escape.

Frederick T. Frelinghuysen, Secretary of State under President Arthur, died at his residence in Newark on Wednesday after a long illness. Mr. Frelinghuysen was a member of a distinguished New Jersey family. He was born in 1817, and was graduated at Rutgers College and became a successful lawyer. During the war he was Attorney-General of New Jersey. In 1866 he was appointed to succeed United States Senator Wright, and was afterward elected by the Legislature to fill the remainder of Mr. Wright's term. He was reelected in 1871. The year previous he had declined President Grant's offer of the English Mission. He was one of the members of the Electoral Commission of 1877. As Secretary of State, Mr. Frelinghuysen's last active work was the negotiation of the numerous commercial treaties which marked the close of President Arthur's Administration. Mr. Frelinghuysen was regarded by New Jersey as one of her ablest and most upright public men.

Professor Oren Root, for nearly fifty years professor of mathematics at Hamilton College, Clinton, died on Friday night.

Mr. Samuel Jones, Professor Emeritus of Physics and Chemistry of the Washington and Jefferson College, Washington, Pa., died on Friday.

Mother Josephine Charles, founder of the Roman Catholic Order of the Sisters of the Holy Family, died in New Orleans on Wednesday at the age of sixty-nine. She was the daughter of a German father and a free mulatto woman. Her good works were well known throughout the South.

FOREIGN.

A sensation was caused in the lobbies of Parliament on Wednesday when it became known that the Guards had been stopped at Alexandria when on their way home from Suakim. It was interpreted as meaning more complications with Russia.

The London *Times*, on Thursday, reviewing the Egyptian question, said: "There is too much reason to fear that a hostile combination against British influence and interests in Egypt has been organized by the European Powers. Their action in respect to the Egyptian convention and in forcing the Khedive by their protests to refund the five percentage which had been deducted from the amount of the coupons, has been clearly intended to show that they are determined to insist upon every point against England."

In the House of Commons on Thursday afternoon the Marquis of Hartington, in reply to a question by Sir Stafford Northcote, stated that it was not thought advisable by the Government to give the reasons for the detention of the Guards at Alexandria. "It was stated by the Government some time ago," added Lord Hartington, "that it was desirable to concentrate the British troops then in the Sudan for possible service elsewhere. That operation is not yet suspended." Mr. Gladstone said that England had had communication with the Porte in regard to the occupation of Suakim, but none with any other Power. "Nothing is yet settled," said Mr. Gladstone, "in regard to arbitration between England and Russia, nor has it been absolutely settled who shall be the arbitrator." It is stated in St. Petersburg that Mr. Gladstone has refused to refer the Afghan dispute to the King of Denmark, and has asked Russia to choose some other arbitrator.

The London *News* (Liberal) on Thursday denied the report that Russia demands to have an agent at Cabul and the complete neutrality of Afghanistan. The *Standard* confirmed the report that the negotiations with Russia hinge upon the question of the possession of Merut-chak, which is claimed by Afghanistan and demanded by Russia.

The London stock market was very much depressed on Thursday by the reports of delay in the settlement of the Afghan dispute.

A London despatch on Monday said: "Orders have been sent to Aldershot for a fresh

squadron of Hussars to embark for Egypt at the earliest possible moment. This order, when it becomes generally known, is certain to cause quite as great a sensation as the detention of the Guards at Alexandria and the Australians at Aden. Orders have also been sent to the royal arsenal at Woolwich to resume overtime and night work in hastening the manufacture of ordnance and ammunition."

The Turkish Council of Ministers on Sunday discussed Earl Granville's note to the Turkish Ambassador in London in regard to the proposed occupation by Turkey of Suakim and other Red Sea ports in Egypt. Earl Granville declares that if Turkey refuses to agree to this proposition, England will be compelled to make arrangements for the occupation of the places by some civilized Power. The note adds that as soon as order and a stable government shall have been established, the British troops will be withdrawn from Egypt.

The armored train on Sunday surprised a body of Arab rebels tearing up the rails of the Suakim-Berber Railway. About one hundred of the rebels were killed.

The natives of Dongola, fearing massacre at the hands of El Mahdi after the evacuation of the Sudan by the British, are flocking down the Nile in large numbers. The Mudir's absence contributes to the fright.

All the British and Egyptian troops have evacuated Meraweh. The natives are paralyzed with fears of an attack and massacre by the followers of the Mahdi. The Guards have gone into quarters at Alexandria, pending further orders.

General Sir Charles Wilson, who succeeded General Sir Herbert Stewart in the command of the advance corps of the Khartum relief expedition, after the latter was wounded at the zereba battle, has sent in his official report in response to the charge that General Gordon might have been rescued alive if the troops under command of Sir Charles had not been unnecessarily halted at Gubat for three days. The report explains this three days' delay by the necessity of securing the small force at Gubat against an attack then threatened from Berber on the north, and from Umderman on the south. The report further states that, after the arrival of the troops at Gubat, it required a great deal of time to select crews and prepare the steamers for the advance to Khartum.

Lord Rosebery went to Berlin on Friday. He has had an interview with Bismarck. It is stated that his mission is a twofold one—to ask Emperor William to act as arbitrator in the Afghan frontier dispute, and to enlist his support to secure the execution of the Egyptian financial convention.

It was stated in Berlin on Tuesday that the tendency of the conferences between Lord Rosebery, Prince Bismarck, Sir Edward Malet, Count Shuvaloff, and Count von Hatzfeldt is toward a peaceful result. The statement comes from Russian sources that Russia has abandoned her claim to Zulfikar and Merutchak, but that the negotiations are likely to be prolonged in order that a complete and final treaty may be concluded.

Mr. Gladstone, in the House of Commons on Wednesday afternoon, gave notice that he would introduce a Land Purchase Bill for Ireland after Whitsuntide. The House of Lords on Wednesday passed the Registration Bills. The royal assent was given to them on Thursday, as well as to the vote of credit. This completes the legislation for the extension of the franchise.

A great deal of comment was caused by the absence from their places, at the opening of the House of Commons on Friday afternoon, of three members of the Cabinet, Mr. Chamberlain, President of the Board of Trade, Mr. Trevelyan, Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, and Sir Charles Dilke, President of the Local Government Board. There were rumors

of their resignation on account of the proposed renewal of the Crimes Act. Parliament adjourned on Friday until June 4, and the Cabinet crisis was staved off until after the Whitsuntide recess. The Cabinet situation now probably means either a renewal of the truncated Crimes Act for one year only, or else that Chamberlain and Dilke will resign, and probably also Shaw-Lefevre, the Postmaster General.

Victor Hugo died at his home in Paris at 1:30 o'clock on Friday afternoon. His last words were "Adieu, Jeanne, adieu," addressed to his granddaughter. He declined the services of a priest in his last hours. The French Government immediately decided on a civil funeral for M. Hugo at the expense of the State. Eulogies upon him were delivered in the Senate and Chamber of Deputies. The signs of mourning were general throughout France. A few of the most important of the dates in Victor Hugo's life are as follows. He was born February 26, 1802, at Besançon, France, his father being General Hugo. When a mere school-boy he wrote odes, satires, tragedies, etc., in great abundance. At the age of fifteen he wrote a poem on the "Advantages of Study," which received an "honorable mention" at the annual competition of the French Academy. When he was twenty years of age he had published a volume of poems, and was soon after married to Adèle Foucher. He was recognized as the chief of the Romantic school before he was twenty-five. His dramas "Cromwell" and "Hernani" excited the wrath of the Classicists. "Lucrèce Borgia," in 1833, was his first popular success as a dramatist. "Notre Dame de Paris," published in 1831, excited the admiration of France, and to it was chiefly due his admission into the French Academy ten years later. In 1848 Hugo was elected to the French Assembly, where he advocated the abolition of capital punishment. He soon came under Republican influences, and the Coup d'Etat sent him into exile in the Island of Jersey. During this time he produced many books of poems, and in 1862 "Les Misérables," which had been translated into nine languages before publication. The downfall of the Empire brought Hugo back to Paris in 1870. During the excesses of the Commune he retired to Belgium, but has lived in Paris since 1873. He was a life Senator of the Republic. His most important prose work of the last twelve years was "Ninety-three," published in 1874; his most important verse, "La Légende des Siècles." On the 25th of February, 1880, the fiftieth anniversary of the first production of "Hernani" was celebrated with great pomp at the Théâtre-Français.

The body of Victor Hugo was conveyed to the Arc de Triomphe in Paris on Sunday, and laid in state on a catafalque. His funeral will take place on May 31.

Sunday being the anniversary of the fall of the Commune, the Communists of Paris attempted to hold a demonstration at the tombs of their comrades in the Père-la-Chaise Cemetery. The police interfered. A serious conflict ensued. The police drew their swords and drove the rabble against a heap of stones. The rioters used the stones as missiles, and one of the policemen was knocked senseless and another's jaw was broken. The Republican Guards, with fixed bayonets, charged the mob. It was said that five persons were killed and eighty wounded. The police, however, assert that nobody was killed, and only thirty wounded. The Communists became greatly excited and vowed vengeance.

Late on Monday afternoon the Communist troubles broke out afresh in Paris. A number of Communists were entering the body of a comrade at Père-la-Chaise Cemetery. The speeches made over the grave were of such a violent character that the crowd became excited, and, led by M. Rochefort, they started in a body to sally out through the gates of the cemetery, shouting and waving red flags. The police interfered and made a rush to disperse the rioters and capture the red flags. A despe-

rate encounter was the result, the Communists having armed themselves with knives. Several of the combatants on both sides were wounded, but none, it is thought, fatally. The police finally dispersed the rioters and made many arrests. It is asserted that the interference of the police was brutal and unnecessary. There are apprehensions in Paris that a dangerous Communist outbreak is imminent.

M. Amouroux, the French Communist, is dead at the age of forty-two. In April, 1869, he was condemned to four months' imprisonment for exciting contempt against the Government. In March, 1870, he fled to Belgium, but returned in September, and became one of the most active agents of the Internationale, violently opposing the Government of the Defence. He was elected a member of the Commune in March, 1871, taking part in the principal discussions of that assembly and generally acting with the most extreme wing of the party. On the entry of the regular troops into Paris he was arrested and taken to Brest, where he was recognized. After trials before councils of war for taking part in the insurrection, he was condemned to transportation for life servitude. On January 19, 1873, he was sent to New Caledonia, the French penal colony.

Prime Minister Depretis of Italy has intimated to King Humbert his desire to retire to private life on account of old age.

Count Terenzio della Rovere Mamiani, the Italian poet, philosopher, and politician, is dead. He was born in Pesaro in 1800. He took part in the revolutionary movements following the accession of Pope Gregory XVI. In 1848 he was made President of the Council when the Constitution was framed. He went to Turin and organized the Society of the Union of Italy. He was made Minister of Foreign Affairs in the Galletti Ministry, but soon resigned, and supported French intervention. In 1861 he was made Ambassador to Greece, and in 1865 represented the Italian Government at Berne. He wrote many popular poems and philosophical and political works.

Major Steele, of the Northwest Mounted Police, had, it was reported on Thursday, a skirmish with the Indians near Fort Pitt. He lost some men and had to retire toward Edmonton.

Poundmaker sent in a flag of truce on Thursday to Battleford asking on what terms he could surrender. He gave up the captured teamsters, two women, and a priest. General Middleton replied that he must surrender unconditionally.

General Middleton and his forces arrived at Battleford in a steamer on Sunday night, and preparations were at once made for an attack on Poundmaker. Just as the troops were ready to begin the march on Monday, the Rev. Father Cochin, Roman Catholic missionary to Poundmaker's band, came to the General with a communication from Poundmaker, stating that he would surrender unconditionally. General Middleton, of course, accepted the terms, and immediately the Indians began coming in and gave up their arms. They were thoroughly scared. Poundmaker's force numbered more than 2,000. Big Bear with 800 well armed men declares he will make a stand at Big Hills, between Frog Lake and Fort Pitt. Dumont is still in the Birch Hills, and defies the Government.

The Canadian Government has decided to hand Riel over to the civil authorities for trial.

The Salvadorian revolutionists under Menéndez were recently defeated at Armenia, after a five hours' fight, by the regular army of San Salvador. Four hundred Guatemalan troops on Saturday crossed the border of San Salvador. This invasion will probably result in reopening the whole Central American question.

MR. LOWELL.

MR. JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL is again, after eight years of official life, a private citizen, and will soon be on his way home. His career in London has formed an episode in American diplomacy which, it is safe to say, has had no parallel in effectiveness, except Franklin's mission to Paris and Mr. Charles Francis Adams's in England during and after the war. Mr. Lowell, it is true, has conducted no important negotiation, and, therefore, it may be said, has had no chance to show either his weakness or his excellence as a lawyer or as an international controversialist. The Irish troubles filled one or two years of his career with very vexatious questions, but they were questions which tried his temper rather than his knowledge or his skill. He had to keep the United States from getting into hot water over the claims of a parcel of criminal adventurers on their protection. These claims were rarely well grounded, and, even when good, were made by men whom any civilized country might well blush to own. In dealing with them, he made, as we said at the time, in our opinion, the mistake of admitting that any foreign government could, under any pretext, keep an American citizen in prison indefinitely in time of peace without a trial of some kind, as a mere precautionary measure. But there was, we believe, some foundation for this admission in the ground taken by Mr. Seward during the war, with regard to British subjects in this country. Still, the difficulties with which Mr. Seward was struggling were too great to furnish for one moment a precedent for Earl Granville in dealing even with Irish assassins and boycotters. Mr. Lowell, if we are not mistaken, was acting under instructions from the State Department, or at all events received its approval, its chief at that time not having formed the alliance with the Irish dynamiters which subsequently supplied such a feather for his cap.

As a matter of fact, however, in our day the conduct of direct negotiations is but a small part of a foreign minister's business. Important negotiations are now generally conducted by special agents, or are directed at every step by instructions from home. In the very serious controversy now going on between Russia and England, not only is Baron de Staal assisted in London by a special agent in the person of M. de Lessar, sent over for the express purpose, but he is obliged to refer every proposal of the British Government to the Cabinet at St. Petersburg, and await its answer. So it is and must be with us. No envoy is now allowed to act on his own responsibility in important discussions, when he can consult his own Government every half-hour on every point which comes up.

In fact, American legations abroad, which, owing to our complete separation from Europe, as well as for other reasons, never had the importance of those of the Old World, are fast becoming, if they are not already, simply rewards for politicians of some kind of distinction, for whom the party in power is unable to find places in the Cabinet. Ministers are no longer sent out to negotiate, or even to observe and report. For the latter function

most of them, through want of all preparatory knowledge of the manners or languages of foreign countries, are totally unfit. They generally pass lives of great insignificance if not obscurity in foreign capitals, reflecting neither honor nor discredit on their country, and treated as outsiders by their diplomatic brethren.

The London mission has, however, always constituted an exception to this rule. The United States are connected with England by so many ties—ties of blood, of religion, of language, of law, of political traditions and manners—that the American Minister in London, no matter what kind of man he is, must needs be a great personage, much observed and much criticised. It has, for this reason, been, from the very foundation of the Government, a tradition of American diplomacy that the American representative at that point should be a specimen of the best the United States can produce in the way of social and intellectual culture, and should, in some sort, represent the American people in its best clothes and with its company manners. It is casting no reproach or slur on any of Mr. Lowell's predecessors to say that none of them has played this part so well as he. To those who hold the semi-barbarous notion that one of the duties of a foreign minister is to occupy a defiant attitude toward the people to whom he is accredited—that he should stick to his post, to use the popular phrase, "with his back up," and keep the world he lives in constantly in mind that his countrymen are rough, untamable, and above all things quarrelsome, Mr. Lowell has not seemed a success. But to them we must observe, that they know so little of the object of diplomacy that their opinion is of no sort of consequence. The aim of diplomacy is not to provoke war, but to keep the peace; it is not to beget irritation, or keep it alive, but to produce and maintain a pacific temper; not to make disputes hard, but easy, to settle; not to magnify differences of interest or feeling, but to make them seem small; not to win by threats, but by persuasion; not to promote mutual ignorance, but mutual comprehension—to be, in short, the representative of a Christian nation, and not of a savage tribe.

No foreign minister, it is safe to say, has ever done these things so successfully in the same space of time as Mr. Lowell. If it be a service to the United States to inspire Englishmen with respect such as they have never felt before for American wit and eloquence and knowledge, and thus for American civilization itself, nobody has rendered this service so effectively as he has done. They are familiar almost *ad nauseam* with the material growth of the United States, with the immense strides which the country has made and is making in the production of things to eat, drink, and wear. What they know least of, and have had most doubts about, is American progress in acquiring those gifts and graces which are commonly supposed to be the inheritance of countries that have left the ruder beginnings of national life far behind, and have had centuries of leisure for art and literature and science. Well, Mr. Lowell has disabused them. As far as blood and training go, there is no more genu-

ine American than he. He went to England as pure a product of the American soil as has ever landed there, and yet he at once showed English scholars that in the field of English letters they had nothing to teach him. In that higher political philosophy which all Englishmen are now questioning so anxiously, he has spoken not only as a master, but almost as an oracle. In the lighter but still more difficult arts, too, which make social gatherings delightful and exciting to intellectual men, in the talk which stimulates strong brains and loosens eloquent tongues, he has really reduced the best-trained and most loquacious London diners-out to abashed silence. In fact, he has, in captivating English society—harder, perhaps, to captivate, considering the vast variety of talent it contains, than any other society in the world—in making every Englishman who met him wish he were an Englishman too, performed a feat such as no diplomatist, we believe, has ever performed before.

HARMONIZING NEW YORK.

A VERY amusing rumor comes from Washington that "it is thought that Secretaries Whitney and Manning, during their stay in New York, will endeavor to harmonize the Democratic factions in that city so as to present a solid front of Democracy at the fall elections. New York politicians in Washington say that this is a much more important question now than the selection of a candidate for the Governorship." We have no doubt that this is the view of the New York politicians who are in Washington in search of office, but we take leave to doubt if it is shared by the President, or if the two Secretaries named are here for any such purpose as the rumor given ascribes to them. Those three men are too familiar with New York politics to entertain for a moment the idea that this State can be carried by "harmony" alone. There is, in fact, no State in the Union in which harmony, as the workers understand the term, counts for less.

There have been several notable attempts to carry the State in recent years by what the harmony advocates call a "wise distribution of the offices," and they have all failed. In fact, all the more important successes have been secured by the party and candidate who had no aid whatever from the offices. Mr. Tilden carried New York for Governor in 1874 by 50,000, with all the offices, State and national, in the possession of his opponents. He carried it again for President in 1876 by 32,000 majority, with the Custom-house, Post-office, and all other Federal offices devoting every energy in their power to secure his defeat. In 1879 Mr. Cornell, by the aid of the Federal patronage, was able to get himself nominated as the Republican candidate for Governor. He was one of the most perfect specimens of the harmony candidate—the kind that is nominated "by strengthening the party by means of a wise distribution of the offices"—which the State had seen up to that time. His nomination was denounced by the independent voters, and though John Kelly's separate candidacy enabled him to slip in through a division of the Democratic vote, he lacked nearly 35,000 votes of a majority, poll-

ing 70,000 less votes than Morgan polled for Governor in 1876. The Independent voters had no candidate, but simply contented themselves with "scratching" Cornell.

The memorable Folger campaign is too fresh in the memory of everybody to need extended reference. Mr. Folger, even more absolutely than Mr. Cornell, owed his nomination to the influence of the offices. He was nominated because the President desired his candidacy. A more thoroughly "harmonized" convention than the one which put him in the field was never seen in this State. Personally, a more fit candidate for Governor had not been nominated in many years. The whole machinery of the party had been used to "pick out a good man," but the voters would not accept him. Undoubtedly the Blaine influence in the Republican party had a good deal to do with the enormous majority by which Judge Folger was defeated, but the Independent voters had much more to do with it. They supported Mr. Cleveland with unanimity and enthusiasm, and the result was that, without the help of a single State or national office, and with very little enthusiasm for him among the "workers" of his own party, he was made Governor by 192,000 majority.

Mr. Cleveland's remarkable political success has been won, not by "harmonizing" his party, but by deserving the popular confidence. He has never been a favorite with the politicians. He was nominated and elected Governor without their active sympathy. His administration as Governor never met their approval. He did not deal out the offices at Albany in a way which at all pleased them. They opposed his nomination for the Presidency because of a thorough understanding of his character—a character as diametrically opposed to theirs as could well be imagined. During all the time of his service at Albany there was heard the same complaint which comes from Washington now—that he is serving the people rather than his party; that he cares more for his own reputation as a faithful public servant than he does for the cold toes of the boys; that he is a selfish man and a very poor Democrat. Yet in spite of this hostility he was nominated for the Presidency—nominated, not because the politicians of his party wanted him, but because the shrewdest of them were convinced that his strength with that element of the people which cared nothing for party names but everything for honest government, was great enough in New York State to secure for him its electoral vote.

It was this element, known as the Independent vote, which nominated and elected him President, and it is this element which controls New York politics to-day and will decide the election next November. Nothing is more absurd than to imagine that any process of "harmonizing" or "strengthening" can elect any man Governor without the help of the Independent vote. Everything that "harmony" of all kinds could do was done for Mr. Blaine last year. He had all the machinery of his own party; he had the assistance of 30,000 or more treacherous Tammany votes; he had the indirect aid of Butler's candidacy and the advocacy of it by the *Sun*; he had the mysterious aid of the Catholic influence

and the blarney-bought support of the dynamite Irish; but he did not win. The Independent vote was powerful enough to give Mr. Cleveland nearly 28,000 more votes than he received for Governor in 1882, and to elect him President. Every day of his Administration has strengthened him and his party in this State. He not only has the support of all the people who voted for him last fall, but of thousands of others who would have voted for him had they not been frightened by the bugaboos of disaster to business and industry which would result from putting the "Confederacy again in the saddle." These men see now how foolish they were, and it will not be possible to scare them again. The handful of Butler men have probably seen their mistake also, and nobody believes that Tammany can ever again organize so formidable a conspiracy against the Democratic party.

There is one sure way of turning over the State to the Republicans this fall, and that is for the Administration to attempt to harmonize the Democratic factions on the basis proposed by the politicians in Washington—that is, to give one faction the Collectorship, another the Surveyorship, one the Marshalship, another the District Attorneyship, and so on, and then nominate a good, sympathetic working politician for Governor. There would be no doubt whatever of the election of any respectable Republican candidate in that event. But if the Administration will go forward in the way in which it has been going, giving the country good government and allowing the politicians to "harmonize" themselves, it will be doing the Democrats of this State the most valuable service possible. The people of the State will go to the polls in November and elect to the Governorship the candidate who is, in their opinion, best fitted to hold the office. Any attempt to swerve them from that purpose would be as futile as it would be absurd. We have not the slightest idea that the President and his two Secretaries named have studied New York politics to so little purpose as not to know this.

RAILWAY REGULATION.

THE Senate Committee on Inter-State Commerce has within a few days taken the testimony or opinions of Pool Commissioner Fink and Mr. George R. Blanchard, two of the most experienced railway traffic managers in the country, and of Mr. H. V. Poor, the compiler of the 'Railway Manual.' The object of the investigation is to obtain data for the use of the Senate in deciding between the principles of the Reagan (House) bill, which lays down certain fixed rules for the regulation of railroad charges, and those of the Cullom (Senate) bill, which proposes, in lieu of fixed rules, the appointment of a National Railroad Commission, whose duty it shall be to collect information, to hear complaints, to exercise moral influence, and to stand in the same relation toward the public and the railways as the Railway Commissions of England, of Massachusetts, and of New York—a relation rather advisory than compulsory—but with power to enforce its decrees. In the debates on the Reagan bill Mr. Cullom had decidedly the better case, and was supported by arguments which convinced the Senate that the regulation of rail-

ways and railway charges by statute ought not to be attempted without a wider examination of the facts, and a more precise generalization from them, than had yet been had under Congressional authority. Hence the present investigation.

Since the period of the Granger legislation ten years ago, there has been a remarkable change in the attitude and direction of public sentiment toward railways. At the time when State Legislatures, the majority of the press, and nearly all the organs of public opinion were demanding severe laws and statutory limitations upon railway managers and railway rates, a few persons not owners of railway property, but entitled by character and intelligence to a public hearing, insisted that the law of competition was ample to correct all the abuses complained of, and that the hasty and crude legislation demanded by public impatience would be productive of more evils than it would cure, and would eventually be repealed by the very men who had secured its enactment. Conspicuous among these unwelcome prophets were Mr. Charles Francis Adams, jr., Mr. Edward Atkinson, and the late Samuel Bowles, of Massachusetts. After the lapse of ten years we find all their predictions fulfilled and more than fulfilled. The Granger laws were passed. They proved worthless and fell into disrepute. The only law which remained in full vigor was the law of competition, which has been working with giant power day and night, year in and year out, to do the very things which the Granger laws attempted but were ineffectual to accomplish. This law has actually reduced railway charges on the most important lines in the country below the cost of carriage. According to a recent analysis, prepared by a well-known civil engineer (Mr. O. Chanute), the cost of carrying freight on the New York Central Railroad, through and local, taking all classes and all distances together, and including terminal expenses and insurance, is as nearly as possible eight and nine-tenths mills per ton per mile. This is the cost to the railway company. The freight charges of the company last year averaged nine and one-tenth mills per ton per mile. At the present time they are believed to be not more than seven mills per ton per mile. The West Shore and Buffalo Road carried in the month of April 190,000 tons of freight at an average rate of six and six-tenths mills per ton per mile.

It is not strange, in view of this state of things, that Mr. Fink and Mr. Blanchard favor legislation to protect the railroads against each other. They ask that the law of competition be throttled in the interest of investors. "The United States Government," says Mr. Blanchard, "owes fully as much protection to the investors in the securities of such roads as to the farmers, shippers, and receivers. Had the same protection been afforded to the investor as to the other classes, the losses of the past few years would have been avoided. I would give this national commission or tribunal a warning power to stop violations of its rules, and an arresting power to prevent any repetition of offences against it. If this system was adopted, and there was no change possible except after five days' public notice, and it was applied to inter-State roads

and water transportation, the effect would be apparent at once. Peace and prosperity would be the rule with the railroads rather than the present existing troubles."

Alas, Mr. Blanchard, there is no way to do it. Mr. Poor, in his blunt way, told the truth and the whole truth when he said, "The Government has nothing whatever to do with the calamity of one road or the prosperity of another." The country is full of suffering industries—bankrupt spinners, weavers, puddlers, rail makers, coal miners, paper manufacturers; all suffering from too much competition. Congress is as powerless to help them, to protect one against another, as it is to make a new world without any law of competition in it. To transfer the Joint Traffic Association to a committee room in Washington would be as futile as to erect a new Tower of Babel. The only fact which the present investigation is likely to disclose is, that railway transportation is cheap enough, that it cannot be made cheaper by statute, and that the wisest thing Congress can do is to keep hands off altogether, or at most to confine itself to the systematic collection and publication of statistics.

THE PEACE PROSPECT.

LONDON, May 14.

THE clouds of threatening war which covered the sky for seven weeks have vanished even more suddenly than they appeared; and men now talk of peace with Russia as assured—assured at least for the present, for in times like ours there is no use in speculating on what may happen more than a year ahead. Your readers have marked the different phases which the question of the Afghan boundary and the "incidents" that befell there have taken, so that it would be superfluous for me to recount the succession of events. I content myself with commenting on the state of the popular mind at the most critical moments, and on the general result so far as it affects the domestic politics of England and the reputation of her present Ministry.

Of these moments, the most critical was Monday, April 27, the day when Mr. Gladstone brought forward the Vote of Credit for eleven millions sterling for war preparations. For a fortnight previously the tension in the public mind had been extreme, although the demeanor of the nation was so calm that a stranger would have found it hard to realize, except by observing the eager curiosity for the slightest particle of news, and the swift and sudden fluctuations on the Stock Exchange, that we were on the eve of a tremendous conflict, which would have been carried on not only in Asia and Europe, but possibly also in our territories in Pacific North America and in Australia. This calmness was chiefly due to the general unity of sentiment—the Tories hating Russia and inclined to welcome a struggle which they have long believed inevitable, and the Liberals relying so implicitly on Mr. Gladstone's love of peace as to hold that any war he undertook must be necessary and rightful. For the few days before this Monday, nearly everybody had expected a diplomatic rupture, and it seemed almost certain that an appeal to arms would follow. Yet the faith in the pacific intentions of the Ministry had still so much strength that the solemnity, not unmingled with menace, of Mr. Gladstone's tone in moving the vote took men by surprise. His wonderful power of rising to the level of a great occasion was never more remarkably displayed. The speech, except in a few sentences

toward the close, does not seem, to one who reads it in cold blood, to rise to a high point of eloquence, but the effect of his animated gestures and his wonderfully modulated and awe-inspiring voice was immense. So deep was the impression on the crowded House of Commons that no one rose to follow him, and the vote passed, not merely unanimously, but without a single word of comment. How much this unanimity told upon the country and upon Europe you are all aware. It seemed to express the strenuous resolve of a united nation. Yet it was really an accident. There were several members—some of them conspicuous persons—who had intended to speak, but one or two of them had gone out for the moment, expecting others to keep up the debate; while of those who remained, each waited for some one else to begin, and none ventured to be the first to break the spell which the great orator had laid upon the assembly he has swayed so long. On such accidents, and sometimes on accidents smaller than this, does the history of the world turn.

Before the end of the week which began in this dramatic way, it was felt that the sky was clearing, and when the Report (as it is called) of the Vote of Credit from the Committee of the Whole to the House came up on Monday, May 4th, Russia's acceptance of the English proposal to refer to arbitration the question of the Panjdeh fight between the Russians and Afghans, had become known. (This incident had been the chief point that threatened a rupture, and was chiefly dwelt on in Mr. Gladstone's speech, for it was understood that on the main issue of the delimitation of the frontier there was good prospect of accord.) The temporary harmony of parties disappeared in an instant, and Parliament echoed with angry recriminations, resumed at intervals during the few days following, and culminating in a party debate and division on Monday, the 11th.

The Opposition accused the Government of having obtained the vote of credit on a false pretence, the pretence of announcing a valorous defence of British interests and British honor by arms, when in reality the points in dispute were being surrendered to Russia. They ridiculed the reference to arbitration, which was couched in somewhat vague terms, as being substantially a surrender, a device for evading the question whether the Russian troops had not been the aggressors, and practically letting their aggression pass unpunished. The Ministry, denying this, was met by the demand for full information as to the communications that had passed and were passing between the two Governments; but Mr. Gladstone declared that it was impossible to produce them immediately, as an incomplete statement would be worse than no statement at all. The absence of this information, so necessary before the conduct of the Ministry could be fairly judged, made the debate a somewhat hollow one, nor did it excite much interest in the country. Meanwhile a Blue Book containing the despatches is being printed, and will appear in a day or two, so that the Opposition, should they find matter in it confirming their view as to the cowardice of the Cabinet, will have the opportunity of moving another vote of censure.

It would have been more prudent for the Tory leaders to have waited for these papers before launching their charges, because their hasty action has not only wasted some of their ammunition and taken the edge off any attack they may subsequently deliver, but has exposed them to the reproach of being anxious for war with Russia at all hazards. "They desire war," so say their antagonists, "partly from a blind hatred of Russia and general love of bloodshed, and partly because they believe that the expendi-

ture it must involve will make the Cabinet unpopular, and give them a better chance at that approaching general election which fills every one's thoughts." It would be more just to say that the Opposition are so deeply persuaded of the weakness of the Cabinet and the disposition of its chief to truckle to Russia, so convinced also of Russia's bad faith and determination to extend her borders in Afghanistan, with a view to an ultimate attack on India, that they can scarcely help concluding any arrangement made between Mr. Gladstone and the Czar to be for the benefit of the latter. They had come to believe, as indeed nearly the whole nation believed, that a war was inevitable; and they argue that, as a postponement for two or three years will enable Russia to push forward her railway from the Caspian to the border which is now being settled, while it will not make it any easier for England to garrison Herat—the passage to which from India lies through unfriendly tribes—it is far more to Russia's interest than to England's that this breathing space should be interposed.

How far these arguments will tell on the country, or what verdict it will pass on the behavior of the Cabinet, cannot be determined till the papers with the despatches are produced. For the last few weeks, neither Parliament nor the people have known much more about the negotiations in progress, or had more opportunity of controlling them, than the people or Parliament of Queen Elizabeth had of her dealings with Spain. When foreign affairs become delicate and dangerous, England lapses back from the character of a parliamentary to that of a despotic country, only the despot is not the Crown but a Cabinet chosen by the people, and probably chosen for reasons with which opinions on foreign policy have nothing to do. Nor is it easy to see how the affairs of an empire like England's could be carried on upon any other system.

So far, the Ministerialists throughout the country are pleased at the prospect of a settlement, and applaud the pacific spirit of their leaders. However just a war might have been, they would have found it an unpleasant thing to defend on election platforms to audiences who remembered the declaration of Mr. Gladstone in 1880, and the condemnation of the bellicose and aggressive tendencies of Lord Beaconsfield which then determined the votes of the Nonconformists and the workingmen. Now, unless it should appear that the Ministry have really made England eat humble pie, or have sacrificed some frontier post of substantial importance, the bulk of the people will be glad to have avoided a struggle which must have involved heavy taxation, and might have seriously injured our mercantile marine. Trade is still languishing; we have no friend on the Continent except Italy; Egyptian questions may give as much trouble in the future as they have done in the past; so that we are well out of a war for objects which had not come home to the mind of the ordinary citizen, and which might have proved a long one, because neither of the combatants could easily reach the other to strike a decisive blow.

In one respect these Russo-Afghan troubles have been a godsend to the Ministry. They have turned men's minds away from the lamentable conclusion of the expedition to Khartum. The humiliating announcement that, after all the high language held three months ago as to the necessity of "smashing the Mahdi," the troops are to be withdrawn from the Upper Nile into Egypt as soon as the river has risen sufficiently to let them float down, and that the projected railway from Suakim to Berber will not be made, has been received with comparatively slight attention, because Africa had

ceased some weeks before to be the centre of political interest. Everybody is a little ashamed of the part we have played, yet nearly everybody feels that it would have been a mistake to go on "throwing good money after bad." The Tories will make full use of the death of Gordon and the unfortunate ending of the expedition to rescue him, in their autumnal campaign against the Government, nor can it be denied that these events have damaged the Government's reputation. Yet the mass of the voters care little for such topics; and it is lucky for our present rulers that their retreat from the Sudan should have been in a measure suggested by and covered by Asiatic troubles which were not of their making, and in which they may turn out to have shown more wisdom than has marked their African policy.

Y.

THE RUSSIAN MENACE AND THE DEFENCE OF INDIA.

LONDON, May 14, 1885.

It is just a month since I wrote to the *Nation* a letter under the above heading. In the interval a marvellous transformation has been accomplished. The war-cloud, when it seemed at its blackest, has suddenly broken up and disappeared. Mr. Gladstone has announced in the House of Commons that all questions in dispute are as good as adjusted, and that nothing remains but for Russia and ourselves to shake hands and swear an eternal friendship.

Perhaps a brief letter in explanation of the cause which has wrought this astonishing change will not be uninteresting to your readers. It is to the bitter hostility of the Afghans that England owes its escape from a war in which it is hard to see how she could have come off victorious. As we have heaped wrongs and injuries upon the Afghans without number, an outsider might not unreasonably argue that this hostility was an element in the situation that might have been reckoned upon beforehand. But to argue thus indicates an imperfect appreciation of the national character. It is impossible for Englishmen to believe that any people can cherish a lasting resentment for injuries which they have endured, if those injuries have been the work of Englishmen. Accordingly, we had no sooner withdrawn our troops from Afghanistan than the belief became current, among the English in India, that the Afghans were convinced that we desired nothing but their welfare and freedom—that they had nothing to fear from us, and everything to dread from the advance of the Russians.

This singular belief was not disturbed by the fact that, when abandoning Kabul, we had rejected the petition of the Afghans to restore to them the son of Shir Ali, whom we held a prisoner; that, instead of this, we had forced upon them an Amir whom they hated, and who had since shown himself eminently worthy of their hate—a perjured and sanguinary tyrant who, but for British subsidies and British rifles, could not maintain his position for a month. All this was forgotten. The affection of the Afghans for us and their terror of the Russians were accepted as matters beyond all doubt, and were the foundations of the high and menacing tone which the Cabinet and the press took up in its relations with Russia. The Indian "experts" (so called) had persuaded themselves and misled the Cabinet into believing that a British column entering Afghanistan to fight Russia would be conducted to the theatre of war, in a sort of triumphal progress, by the applauding tribes along the line of march. The Amir was invited to meet Lord Dufferin at Rawalpindi to frame a plan of operations and make arrangements for the subsistence of the British troops. Nor did the Indian Bu-

reaucacy awake to a consciousness of the truth until the Amir flatly refused to allow a single British regiment to cross the frontier. He stood, he told Lord Dufferin, absolutely alone in Afghanistan; and if an English army were to enter his territory, the Afghans would rise as one man against him and against the invaders—for such they would deem them to be, no matter what protestations to the contrary they might please to make. And as for Panjdeh, he was willing to cede it to the Russians without further ado.

It is hard to imagine a more ludicrous situation than that in which these unlooked-for declarations placed the Indian officials of the "Forward" school. Herat, according to their teaching, was "the key of India," the vital point which it behooved us to defend at all costs. For fifty years the chief aim and purpose of their Afghan policy had been to keep open the road to Herat. And here was the upshot of all their labors. Just when Russia was stretching out her hand to seize "the key of India," just when it was most urgent that a British force should move with all possible speed to Herat, those unreasonable Afghans insisted upon barring the way. Clearly, without the consent and assistance of the Afghans, it was impossible for a British army to march across a difficult waste and waterless country like Afghanistan; and that being so, there was no alternative but to make a complete "surrender" to Russia. This, accordingly, is what has been done. Russia is to get Panjdeh. She is also to get the frontier for which she has all along contended, and which M. Lessar was sent to London to lay before the London Foreign Office. In return for these substantial gains, she, on her side, is not unwilling to provide a golden bridge for a retreating enemy; and the conduct of General Komaroff in fighting the Afghans is to be submitted to an arbitrator. Russia can do this all the more willingly, as there is now little question that the menacing movements of the Afghans amply justified the action of the Russian commander. This result is not gratifying to the *amour propre* of the nation; but in all other respects it should be most fortunate for us, if only all that is involved in it be clearly perceived and established as the basis of our future action.

The first thing, then, that we ought to see and admit is, that Herat is now lost to us forever. The Russian outposts are within twelve days' march of that place; and, with every month that passes, the Russian position in relation to Herat will be rendered stronger. At present, it is true that Merv and the other most recent acquisitions of Russia in Central Asia consist of sparsely peopled, uncultivated wastes. But this want of cultivation is not due to the natural sterility of the soil, but to the insecurity of life and property caused by the forays of the Turcoman horsemen. All accounts agree that the forays cease as soon as the Russian flag is planted in one of these districts. The correspondents who accompanied General Lumsden say that they found unarmed peasants feeding their flocks, and unarmed merchants conveying their goods over tracts of country where, a few years ago, not a human being would have dared to show his face. A continuance of this order and security will, in a short time, cause these waste places to recover the fertility and population for which they were once celebrated; and when they do so, Russia will experience no difficulty in massing a large force of all arms within striking distance of Herat whenever she pleases to do so. Her Asiatic possessions have, moreover, this great advantage over our Indian Empire, that their frontier actually abuts upon the frontier of Russia proper. In the course of a few years, Merv, Sarakhs, and Panjdeh will be connected by railway with the Caspian and the general railway system of the

Russian Empire; and when this has been done, it will be easier for Russia to assemble sixty thousand men upon the frontiers of Afghanistan than for us to send from England a similar force to Bombay or Kurrachee. When we add to this that the Heratees look upon their Afghan masters as aliens and oppressors, and that they would certainly rejoice to pass under Russian rule, the conclusion is irresistible that the policy of defending India at Herat, whether wise or unwise, is henceforth impracticable.

The other important fact which has been demonstrated by recent occurrences is, that Afghanistan is, so far as India is concerned, a hostile state. This hostility, so far from being diminished by our alliance with the Amir, is directly caused by it, and will go on increasing so long as the alliance endures. These two facts—the unapproachableness of Herat and the enmity of the Afghans—clearly show what is our only possible policy in the future. It is to withdraw ourselves from all entangling engagements with the Amir of Kabul, and to apply the money hitherto devoted to the maintenance of these futile and dangerous alliances to the strengthening of our defences along the proper frontier of our Indian empire. The alternative policies of the "Forward" and "Masterly Inactivity" schools have been tried by the test of experience, with the result that the "Forward" policy no longer exists as a practicable one. Twice has it tried to conquer Afghanistan, and on both occasions it has failed dismally. Then it had recourse to the expedient of keeping open the road to Herat by means of an alliance with the Amir, and this also has failed. The road is barred and Herat lies at the mercy of Russia. We have, therefore, no alternative except to frankly accept the policy of Sir John Lawrence, Sir Charles Napier, and Sir James Outram.

There is unhappily small chance of this alternative being frankly and fully accepted. And herein lies the danger of the situation. The determination of the policy that the nation shall pursue in Afghanistan and Central Asia does not rest with Cabinets, Parliaments, or the nation, but with the Anglo-Indian Bureaucracy; and there is no delusion too extravagant for this Bureaucracy to entertain as a reasonable conviction. Despite our recent experiences in Afghanistan, when it was found impossible to move large bodies of troops on account of the scarcity of food and the frightful mortality among the transport animals, the military authorities in India anticipated no great difficulty in transporting 50,000 men from Quetta to Herat. And just as they counted upon the cordial cooperation of the Afghans, so did they persuade themselves that an English force appearing in Central Asia would be the signal for a general rising of the Asiatic subjects of Russia. Under the influence of these fantastic dreams they converted Sir Peter Lumsden's mission into a display of military force, and an occasion for bribing the Turcomans wholesale to become the allies of Great Britain in the event of a war. The Indian authorities have, in short, worked for war all along, and are naturally much chagrined that their labors have been unavailing. To abandon our entangling engagements with a puppet Amir and rest contented for the future with the natural frontier of India, would be a confession of error on their part which they have no intention of making. The Amir, on the contrary, is to be more largely subsidized than ever. English officers are, at this moment, in Herat to strengthen the fortifications, and the army of Afghanistan is to be re-armed, at the expense of the Indian ryot, with Sniders and Martini-Henrys. This is precisely the policy that was adopted toward the unfortunate Shir Ali, and it must terminate in the same way. Shir Ali was fed for many years with sub-

sides which he expended, as Abd-ur-Rahman Khan will expend them, in casting a prodigious quantity of artillery, in arming his troops with improved rifles—in making himself, in a word, “strong and independent”; and his country was invaded and he himself chased from his capital because he had become too strong and too independent. A similar fate assuredly awaits Abd-ur-Rahman Khan, and it is probably a fore-feeling of this which has made him so willing to cede Panjdeh to Russia, and so loth to take notice of the battle on the Khushk River. It is well, he thinks, to secure the support of England, but neither is it amiss to keep on good terms with Russia as well. An earthen pitcher between two brass pots must move very circumspectly indeed if it is not to be crushed to atoms. The greater the pressure on the English side, the more will Abd-ur-Rahman Khan be riven to incline toward Russia—of whom, it must not be forgotten, he was a long time the guest and pensioner; and it is this that renders a third invasion of Afghanistan from India certain to be undertaken by the Indian Bureaucracy at no distant date.

R. D. OSBORN, Lieut.-Colonel.

Correspondence.

THE BRITISH MUSEUM CATALOGUE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit me to correct two errors in the notice of the printed catalogue of the British Museum in your number of April 16? The printing of the general catalogue was commenced in 1881, not 1875; so that the 330,000 printed titles represent four years' work instead of ten. The years 1813 and 1819 are not the dates of two distinct editions of the catalogue, but of the publication of the first and last volumes of the catalogue prepared by Sir Henry Ellis and Mr. Baker.—Yours very truly,

R. GARNETT.

LONDON, May 12, 1885.

GARBLED “OPINIONS OF THE PRESS.”

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have received this week two copies of a pamphlet published by E. H. Butler & Co., and purporting to contain “Opinions of the Press” on Mr. Scudder's ‘History of the United States.’ On the inside of the cover is a portion of the notice which I had the honor to write for the *Nation*. The publishers are not content with extracting what I said in praise of Mr. Scudder's book and omitting the rest, as they might, not reprehensibly, have done. They have selected and joined their extracts with improperly skillful ingenuity, so as to make the *Nation* appear to praise Mr. Scudder for one of the very characteristics which I thought, and still think, is a decided fault—a certain air of dreamy, artificial childishness and “writing down.” This they have done with no signs of omission, such as they give in other notices of the same book when they do not copy entire.

We all know how publishers write all over the country for “opinions” of schoolbooks, which afterward appear in advertisement pages as columns of unminged eulogy. But it is carrying it a little too far thus to patch, with no signs of omission, the criticisms in a really critical periodical.

THE REVIEWER.

QUINCY, MASS., May 20, 1885.

JURY EVIDENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While agreeing in the main with your editorial on the Munsell case, can it be correctly

said that “any knowledge a juror has of the facts of a case he is sworn to try, he is bound to use in consultation”? I will illustrate my meaning by an actual example: A man was sued here for the conversion of his neighbor's cow. The evidence was all in and the jury retired to their room. Suddenly one of them remembered he had seen this man with this cow, and he told his fellow-jurymen.

Some of them doubted the propriety of this as evidence, and, after discussion, they sent word to the Judge that they wished further instructions. They filed back into the court-room and their foreman explained the matter, and asked the Judge what they should do. The Judge directed them to pay no attention to the recollection of the juror, as it was not in evidence before them, not having been given under oath nor under cross-examination.

The jury disagreed, the case was tried again at the next term of the court, and this juror was summoned as a witness and gave his testimony under oath. But under cross-examination he broke down entirely, and it turned out that it was another cow or another date he testified to, and the jury found for the defendant.

This instance well illustrates the danger of allowing a jury to consider any evidence except such as is given before them under oath and subject to cross-examination.—Yours truly,

A. M. E.

PROVIDENCE, R. I., May 25, 1885.

[Here the jurymen evidently had *not* knowledge. Our position was in regard to one who had.—ED. NATION.]

THE WORKINGMEN AND THE CHURCHES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While I have not seen the article in the *Independent* answering your recent editorial on the alienation of the working classes from the churches, and so cannot claim to have heard both sides of the question, yet there can be little doubt that the general belief as to the facts strongly corroborates your statements. There are many reasons to be given for this condition of affairs, but one of the strongest is made very apparent by placing in juxtaposition two of the sentences you quote in your issue of May 21 from the Rev. Mr. Schauffler: “We find that the churches constantly tend to crowd their way into certain favored localities where, for various reasons, they can easily maintain themselves.” “These poorer classes, herded together in huge tenement houses, have been for the most part left alone by the Christian community.” In other words, the modern system—what has been well called the club-house system—of building and maintaining churches has been, I contend, one of the most potent causes of the disproportion between the growth of the population and of the church-going part of it.

Briefly, and speaking generally, this system works thus: A new part of a city is built up with “fine” houses; some of the wealthy citizens join together to build a church for themselves to worship in, and then, having had the building dedicated to the service of Him who they profess to believe is no respecter of persons, they perform the extraordinary inconsistency of dividing it up into small portions, called pews, which are rented or sold to those who can best afford to pay for them, leaving those who cannot out in the cold. This is called the business-like way of managing religious affairs, and truly so, if the object of church-building is to provide for one's own comfort; but would not such a system cause considerable astonishment (to say the least of it) to St. Paul or St. James, and their fellow-

workers, whose teachings our pewholders profess to reverence? Perhaps, sir, you, whom I may be permitted to call somewhat of a Philistine, will not agree with me; but considerable acquaintance with the working classes leads me to believe this false method of carrying on religious work has quite as much to do with their indifference to church-going as infidelity of any and all kinds put together.—Respectfully,

FREE CHURCHMAN.

PHILADELPHIA, May 24, 1885.

CLARA BELL'S TRANSLATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A question having been raised as to the excellence of Clara Bell's translations, I enclose specimens from ‘Uarda’ which may do somewhat toward settling the doubt as regards accuracy. For the rest, every one will judge according to his notion of what constitutes a good style. Similar examples of unfaithfulness, if I mistake not, might be adduced from nearly every page. I call your attention to a few (more noteworthy when read in connection with the context than when taken in detached passages), that you may make use of them should it suit you to do so.

Yours truly,

T. L. LEE.

WASHINGTON, May 22.

Aus der Zeit von dem Grossvater des regierenden Königsenthronen Königsfamilie.

the deposed royal race of the reigning king's grandfather.

Hast du ihm wenigstens Scheitelfiguren mit ins Grab gegeben?

Did you bury the least bit of an image in his grave?

In die Nähe des Pharao, dem Leben, Heil und Gesundheit blühe.

the neighborhood of the Pharao, where life, happiness, and safety flourish.

Die Trennung, sagt das Sprüchwort, ist der treue Feind.

is the one enemy.

So ist die Würde des Mohar erblich wie die eines Reichsfürsten?

Is the rank of Mohar, then, as high as that of a prince of the empire?

eine Schaar von Stockträgern zur Antreibung der Sämlinge.

to drive off the idle populace.

besonders zierlich erschienen ihnen die Biegung des den Krug im Gleichgewicht haltenden Armes.

Nothing could be more graceful than the action with which the taller ones bent over with the water-jars held in both arms to the drinker.

da nahm ich mir vor den Baum zu neuem Leben zu erwecken.

I perceived that the tree was rising to new life.

Zaudern, fast widerwillig, jählings.

Horror, almost aversion, timidly.

Ich weise sie nicht zurück, die Klippen nahmen ähnliche Formen an.

I do not do them credit, a semblance of life.

schalkhaft und doch nicht ohne Bitterkeit lächelnd.

with a smile full of meaning but without bitterness.

vertraulich.

in joke.

mit hohen Thorbauten verziert.

fortified with towers.

In wenigen Wochen würdest Du die Anstalt ohnehin verlassen, und, so befahlen der König, dem Leben blühe, Heil und Kraft, das Uebungslager der Wagenkämpfer bezogen haben.

and by the king's command have transferred your blooming health, life, and strength to the exercising ground of the chariot brigade.

ein freundliches Herz, das nichts verbrochen als ihn zu lieben.

never ceased to love him.

er dachte nicht mehr an die Verunreinigung die Ben-Anat von Seiten des Paraschiten drohte, sondern ausschliesslich an die Entweckung welche von ihnen Seite den heiligen in diesem stillen Raume lebendigen Gefühlen bevorstand.

but exclusively, on the contrary, on the initiation which she might derive from the holy feelings that were astir in the silent room.

der Arzt, welcher den Vorwurf des Zuergeres nicht unberechtigt fand.

thought the dwarf's reproach uncalled for.

CABINET RESPONSIBILITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As I expected, “B.” resorts to the toothache for his counter argument. This being so, it remains to be shown who proposes to cut off

the patient's head, and who to remove the unsound tooth. He says, "It would be a public misfortune to create a belief that Presidential and Cabinet responsibility cannot be fixed without action by Congress." I cannot see the misfortune of leading the public to believe what is true. On the contrary, the real misfortune is that the present working of the Government only serves to disguise the real truth from the people, and to leave them in the condition of not knowing what to believe.

According to "B.'s" own showing, the responsibility for all appointments now comes back to the President. It is he who is to warn the Cabinet against bad appointments, to compel them to revoke any such if made, and to punish them if they do not yield. It is important to understand fully what this means. It means that in many thousands of cases the President has to decide, of his own motion, what is a bad appointment. He has to do this, not according to any fixed rules, but according to an arbitrary and indefinite standard of what constitutes good and bad conduct in office—a perfectly undetermined limit, within which party claims are to be considered, with the absolute certainty that, whatever he does, one section of the press will raise a howl. It is useless to say that this is of no consequence, for in fact there is nothing by which the Administration at this time can be judged except the appointments, while the public have no means of judging except by what the papers say. As newspaper controversy for the President is out of the question, no word of explanation or defence is possible, no matter how bitter or how insidious the attacks may be.

Again, how is the President's control over his Cabinet to be exercised? Suppose they take a different view from his of party obligations, and commit offences. He may give them what we used to call in college a "private" (admonition); but if they urge necessity, and are obdurate, he has no means of coercion except dismissal, and if he has selected them for reasons of policy, he will hardly do this on account of an appointment, especially as, unless the parties get into a newspaper controversy, the public will never know or give him credit for any such Spartan virtue.

But suppose the President does keep up such a losing battle, in which he is pretty certain to displease everybody, it is not an improvement of system, but depends only upon the individual. The process may be reversed by his successor, unless the public agitation is kept at a white heat upon the civil-service question, to the exclusion of such subjects as tariff, coinage, bank, Indian, naval, and many other reforms; in other words, unless the whole strength of the country is expended upon keeping the machinery in order, with an utter disregard of the product for which that machinery is supposed to exist.

What is there so terrible, on the other hand, in the idea of Congress enforcing responsibility upon the Cabinet and the President? It seems to me that that is one of the main reasons of the existence of Congress. The enforcement of responsibility would be just as much the other way. Each side would stand guard over the other, the public looking on as arbiter. Then for the first time we should get the true popular judgment, because for the first time the people would know the merits of the case. Let us leave, however, the abstract for the concrete. Suppose the Secretary had to meet Congress face to face next December. The first thing he would encounter would be inquiries, not from a party majority, which, if it were on his side, would by no means take such a course, but from individuals, with their spurs to win, as to his use of the offices. A man who had a clear consciousness that, though he might have made mistakes,

he had acted from no motive but the public good, would have an enormous superiority over one who had used the offices for party purposes. The public would be quick to distinguish and support the purer official, while members who had tampered with the departments would be liable to have their intrigues exposed. The whole process would be so vexatious that the Cabinet would demand to have the civil service placed beyond suspicion. And the longer it was kept so, the more difficult it would become for any Administration to return to the old courses. Some years ago Lord Beaconsfield was suspected of having improperly appointed a relative to an office. The Opposition members were after him in a moment. He escaped by one of those skilful evolutions of which he was such a master, but the incident was a warning to all ministers that such a thing was dangerous even for him to repeat. Not the least advantage would be that it would give the President time to devote to matters of policy, instead of having his life-blood drained by these miserable details, though he would still be in a position to warn his Cabinet of rocks ahead.

To allow the tooth to go on to ulcerate, and fester, and gangrene till it becomes fatal—this seems to me the equivalent of cutting off the patient's head; while the remedy proposed is like going to a dentist and having the pain allayed with lotions, and a good gold filling inserted, procuring the restoration of the unsound tooth to its natural function without having it pulled out at all.

G. B.

Boston, May 23, 1885.

Notes.

THE invaluable 'American Catalogue' initiated and successfully carried through by the late Frederick Leypoldt, included, so far as was possible, every book in print in this market up to July 1, 1876. We now greet with pleasure and with pride a continuation of the same work, on the same general plan, compiled, under the editorial direction of Mr. R. R. Bowker, by Miss A. I. Appleton. The new 'American Catalogue' (New York: Office of the *Publishers' Weekly*) preserves for all time the titles of books that have appeared since the above-mentioned date to July 1, 1884. As before, it embraces many works not strictly American—reprints and the importations of English houses having established branches in this country. The list of Government publications starts from January 1, 1881, and will prolong the list compiled up to March, 1881, by Mr. Ben. Perley Poore, from the beginning of the Republic. The latter, a vast and national undertaking, is now ready to be put in type. Another novel feature of the present Catalogue is a list of "series," and another of "societies" which publish. Finally, we remark that three ladies have borne the burden of this most important and creditable contribution to American bibliography.

We bespeak support for another praiseworthy bibliographical undertaking, 'The Issues of the Press in Pennsylvania: 1683-1784,' in two volumes, by Charles R. Hildeburn, Philadelphia. The work aims "to present full and accurate titles and collations of all the books, pamphlets, and broadsides printed in Pennsylvania during the hundred years following the introduction of printing into the middle colonies." The 4,000 titles already collected will be arranged chronologically and fully indexed.

D. Appleton & Co. announce that the second volume of McMaster's 'History of the United States' (1790-1804) will be ready for delivery about June 1. They also announce 'Colonel Enderby's Wife,' by Mrs. Harrison, daughter of Charles Kingsley and author of 'Mrs. Lorimer';

'The Tinted Venus: a Farical Romance,' by F. Anstey; and 'The Common Sense of the Exact Sciences,' by the late William Kingdon Clifford.

Messrs. Macmillan have stated their willingness to publish the MS. of the second part of the late Professor Clifford's 'Elements of Dynamics,' and, after a re-examination of it, his literary executor, Prof. R. Tucker, intends putting the work into their hands for printing. When this book is got out and other lectures recently come into the hands of Professor Tucker have been published, the mathematical world will be in possession of all that can be now looked for from the hand of this great master.

Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, will publish next month a new 'Elementary Physiology,' with special reference to the effects of alcohol and tobacco, by Richard J. Duglison, M.D.; a new and revised edition of the 'Children's Book of Poetry,' compiled by Henry T. Coates; and a new edition of Smith's 'Bible Dictionary,' edited by Peloubet.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert will issue the Book of Psalms, according to the preferred version of the American revisers of the Old Testament.

A 'Riverside Parallel Bible,' with old and new versions side by side, is in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. They will also publish shortly a collection of papers on birds and bird life, called 'Birds in the Bush,' by Bradford Torrey, of Boston.

A new work, chiefly relating to Alaska and the Alaskans, is in preparation by Miss Margaretha Weppner, author of 'The North Star and the Southern Cross.' She has resided among that people for a considerable time.

A paper-cover "Traveller's Series" issued by G. P. Putnam's Sons is introduced by J. J. Jarves's 'Italian Rambles,' Edmondo de Amicis's 'Studies of Paris,' and H. M. Robinson's 'The Great Fur Land.' The last is a timely revival, and Amicis's work hardly less so, considering its long "appreciation" of the late Victor Hugo.

Three more of the dainty volumes of the Riverside Aldine Series have reached our table. Mr. John Burroughs's 'Wake Robin' makes one, and Mr. Howells's 'Venetian Life' fills the other two.

The New England Historic Genealogical Society (Boston) has done well to reprint in book form the already noteworthy results of Mr. Henry F. Waters's 'Genealogical Gleanings in England.' These gleanings among the probate records of the mother country began to be published in the quarterly organ of the Society, the *Register*, in July, 1883; and the volume before us covers the latest instalment in the number for April, 1885. An index of names has been furnished which makes the volume available to the many—to a multitude, we might say. To this work, which is called part 1 of vol. i, and its successors all seekers after a connection between American and English families of the same name must hereafter turn first of all. It marks a new era in the study of genealogy. Moreover, Mr. Waters's incidental discovery of historical documents has already been worth the whole cost of his maintenance up to this time. The fund which the Society has raised for this purpose ought to be recruited from every purchaser of the present work.

Mr. Fitzgerald Molloy's 'Court Life Below Stairs; or, London under the Last Georges, 1760-1830' (Scribner & Welford) is in continuation of a former work in which the scandalous lives of the first two Georges were fluently compiled from all sorts of sources. It has the same quality of readableness and substantial authenticity, but the work does not appeal to the student of history. Dates are rare, there are no footnotes, nor any precise references for the quotations; there is no index, nor even a table of contents. The

narrative is as decent as the subject and the author's aim at piquancy permit.

In everything that proceeds from Mr. Hamerton's pen, the literary quality predominates over the technical, even when art is his chosen topic. This is eminently the case with his 'Landscape,' which we recently reviewed at length from the illustrated *édition de luxe*. Hence the work suffers little as a mental delight when reduced to bare simplicity of print, without pictures. It is issued in their familiar form of this author's works by Roberts Bros., Boston, with Mr. Hamerton's consent and approbation. As such, it makes a compact volume of 440 pages, index included.

From the same publishers we have Pascoe's 'London of To-day,' an unconventional guide-book, with humorous illustrations in the text, and several full-page process reproductions of photographs, one of the lions in Trafalgar Square being a favorable example. The orderly arrangement as shown in the table of contents does not quite compensate for the lack of an index.

The 'Ingoldsby Legends' have been brought out by T. Y. Crowell & Co., in a red-line and gilt-edge edition.

A stout volume containing the 'Seven Lamps of Architecture,' 'Lectures on Architecture and Painting,' 'The Queen of the Air,' and 'The Ethics of the Dust,' is issued by John B. Alden as a sample of his illustrated library edition of Ruskin's works. The print is clear, and the illustrations fairly good process-work; but if both were better, they would not reconcile the author to this unauthorized reprint.

Mr. Christern sends us the illustrated catalogue of the Salon for the present year, containing the usual memorandum sketches, some 300 in number out of a total of 4,338 pieces.

We can hardly keep pace with the issues of the several German lexicons now publishing simultaneously. The lesser Brockhaus ('Kleines Conversations-Lexikon,' New York: L. W. Schmidt), has reached its sixth part, ending with "George Bancroft," the pronunciation of whose name, by the way, is indicated for the first syllable by "bännk"—not quite accurately. Parts 2-4 of the fourth edition of 'Meyers Konversations-Lexikon' (Westermann), end in *Akkord*, and chance to embrace three burning topics of the day—Egypt, Afghanistan, and Africa, all treated with great fulness, and the first accompanied by a fine general map together with one of Alexandria. Athens, also, is mapped, for the ancient and the modern city. Other important articles are those on the nobility (*Adel*), and on the various learned academies the world over. American biography is well looked after under Adams and Agassiz.

Great pretensions are made by the new *Deutsche Enzyklopädie* (Leipzig: F. W. Grunow; New York: Westermann). Its form is larger than the lexicons just noticed, with broad double columns, and each of the hundred parts is sold here for twenty-five cents. Illustrations and maps outside the text are to be discarded. The writers sign their articles. Special attention is paid to the bibliography of the several topics. The traditional scheme of the French encyclopædias is abandoned in favor of a more free and living compilation. Just how much more this means than that the editors will carry out their own ideas of what such a work should contain, it is not easy to determine from Part I. Still it is clear that the difference as to contents will be considerable, that the work will be cheap, and that the writers—a formidable list—are competent.

The two leading articles in *Le Livre* for April are by G. F. Vidocq fils and L. Derome. Though the former adds "bibliophile" to his signature, it does not surprise one to find his subject to be

"La Police par les Policiers"—a bibliographical contribution to a history of the police. Of the *Memoirs of Vidocq* (1828) he says that they manifest more imagination than literary aptitude. M. Derome, on the other hand, portrays, not very skilfully, the life and character of Lacurne de Sainte-Palaye, a forerunner of Littré, who had the use of the former's great MS. collection lately published under the title, 'Dictionnaire historique du vieux langage français,' a glossary coming down to the age of Louis XIV. An interesting etched portrait of Sainte-Palaye and his twin brother, from the original painting in the museum, at Auxerre, accompanies M. Derome's narrative.

The "misused H" comes ludicrously to the front in a report of the doings of Parliament in the *London Times* of May 6. Lord Edmund Fitzmaurice is alleged to have made a statement concerning Sir W. Hay White, the present British Chargé d'Affaires at Constantinople. William Arthur is the name of this accomplished diplomatist. Whether Lord E. Fitzmaurice or the reporter (by oral transmission) is responsible for the aspiration of Sir W. A. White's middle initial, it is not for us to determine.

Mr. Edmund Gosse's services to Scandinavian literature have been handsomely repaid by a very elaborate bibliography of his writings from the pen of Mr. Thorvald Solberg, printed in the *Literary World* for May 16.

In a recent issue of *Nature*, Professor Ewing, of the University College, Dundee, relates the very interesting circumstances of an unusually great earthquake felt in the region in and about Tokio, Japan, on October 15, 1884. A reduced copy of the autographic record of the disturbance, made with the seismograph of the Observatory of Tokio, presents the prominent features of the earthquake in a most striking manner, as it is shown that in the present case the amplitude of the earth's horizontal movement far exceeds anything that has been recorded since observations of this kind were instituted in 1880. The delicate seismic apparatus indicated a movement of the ground, from one side to the other, of no less than 4.3 centimetres; and while the most violent motions were over in about ten seconds, the oscillations continued for some minutes thereafter, with a very extended amplitude. These being unusually slow, the earthquake was prevented from being excessively destructive. It was felt over an area of about 20,000 square miles.

Rev. Dr. Hyde, of Honolulu, writes that an effort is to be made by educated men there to establish a society for the study of the archaeology and philology of Oceanica.

The Proceedings for May of the Royal Geographical Society contain a third paper of "Geographical Notes," by Major Holdich, of the Afghan Boundary Commission, descriptive of the country lying between Herat and Panjdeh. The Russian envoy, M. Lessar, was present, and opened the discussion which followed the paper (written of course before the engagement at Puli-Khisti), with a fuller account of the soil of the country, and an explanation that the changes in the Russian maps were simply owing to the results obtained by recent surveys. Sir Henry Rawlinson, who was Resident at Herat in 1841, spoke of this city and what was necessary for its defence against a European army, and gave his understanding of the boundary line agreed upon in virtue of "a certain political arrangement" in 1872. This statement was corroborated by Sir Richard Temple, who said that "He was a member of the Government of India when that boundary was settled, and nothing could be more explicit than the understanding that it ran from Sarakhs on one side to Khoja-Saleh on the Oxus, and that the line was to be drawn as straight as an arrow." He

also strongly commented on the lack of accurate geographical knowledge in the English service, especially as compared with that shown by Russian officers, leading to "political consequences that frequently placed England at a great disadvantage."

In the same number is an elaborate discussion of the purely geographical problem of the outlet of the great Tibetan river, the Sanpo. Mr. Robert Gordon, a civil engineer and author of the valuable 'Report on the Irawadi River,' favors the Irawadi, chiefly on account of its enormous water-discharge. General Walker, late head of the Indian Survey Department, on the other hand, asserts that the Sanpo is the head-waters of the Brahmaputra. In this opinion he is supported by nearly all recent authorities. Each speaker, however, held that the observations made by the last explorer of those regions, the Pandit A—k, supported his view. The difficulty of settling this question lies in the fact that the mountains through which the Sanpo runs after it leaves the central table-land, are held by a savage race who have hitherto successfully prevented the passage by the river from Tibet to India of any traveller, whether European or native.

Wise people when they go to Rome do as the Romans do. The English carry this a step further: when they go to Egypt they do as the Romans did. They establish a camel corps, just as the Romans established the *Ala prima Valeria dromedariorum* and the *Ala Antiana dromedariorum*. The French antiquaries have been the first to point it out.

The attention of Anglo-Saxon scholars should be called to a very important bibliography of Anglo-Saxon literature just published by Professor R. Wülker, of Leipzig ('Grundriss zur Geschichte der Angelsächsischen Litteratur,' Leipzig). Volume I, so far as printed, gives exhaustive lists, with comments, of all works hitherto printed on the subject (1) of old English linguistics, (2) aids to the study of both language and literature, (3) bibliography of publications (essays, dissertations, texts) connected with Caedmon and his circle, Bede's death-song, Cynewulf and his circle, and the Exeter Book. These lists, with the discriminating remarks which accompany every important book or essay, are simply invaluable to the historical student of English. Nothing seems to have escaped the vigilant eye of the Leipzig professor. The work of American scholars in this particular field is cordially recognized, and contrasted with the apathy that has long existed in England. Colleges and universities which are making collections for their alcoves of *Anglo-Saxonica* will find this manual—for such it is—indispensable.

—The reviewer of Lenormant's 'Monnaies et Médailles,' in No. 1034 of the *Nation*, sends us from London, on May 15, the following comment on M. Feuillet's remarks about the striking of ancient coins in No. 1035:

"There is no evidence that coins were struck hot, and the appearance of the great majority of Greek coins distinctly negatives the theory. Silver, like bronze, requires to be annealed after drawing, hammering, or striking before it can be struck again, and there are numerous cases which show that the coins were struck more than once before the impression was complete. The striking of either of these metals, and to a certain extent of gold also, at a high heat is impossible, for they fly into fragments. When annealed, they may possibly be struck at a moderate temperature, short of entire cooling, but there is absolutely no evidence whatever of such having been the case in the coins themselves. I have just examined what are known as the 'reticulated' coins in the British Museum, and am entirely convinced that the so-called reticulation (which occurs on the reverse of the incused coins only) is simply the half-effaced indication of the preparation of the flan either by a toothed hammer, which will spread the metal better than a

smooth one, or by the use of something analogous to a file for reducing the weight: but in either case by the producing of a roughened surface, and subsequently striking it with a polished instrument and the incuse punch. For the 'reticulation' is always nearly effaced, and is a rare thing in any state, while no trace of it is seen in the obverse or relief of the coin where, if it were the effect of hot coinage, it should equally appear. Nor are the experienced numismatists of the British Museum, certainly as high authorities on such a matter as any in the world, of the opinion that the coins show any evidence of hot coinage. In striking pure silver, which is of extreme softness, there is no utility in hot striking, as the bronze dies, by heating from the contact with the hot metal, would deteriorate far more than would be compensated by any advantage supposed to be derived from heating the coin metal, while the cold metal gives a better impression even than the moderately hot."

—We regard it as a very hopeful sign that the pastor of a church in Providence, R. I., should have felt moved to institute a public course of lectures on political and economic topics, under the auspices and at the expense of his parish. Observation of the late Presidential campaign naturally led him to reflect on the narrow and unintelligent view of the great questions involved taken by the newest class of voters. It then seemed to him that his church, at least, had a function unfulfilled, so long as the young men whom it could reach went uninstructed in the duties and privileges of citizenship. The result was an unpretentious series of discourses—mostly by citizens of the town—on "The Study of Political Economy," "The Organization and Administration of the Federal Government," "The Relations of the Citizen to the National Government," "The Spirit of the Common Law as seen in its Maxims," "How are Inventors Protected?" "Free Trade," "The Nation's Resources," "Communism and Socialism," "Wages, Strikes, and Labor Unions," "A Protective Tariff," "The Banking System and Monetary Exchange," "A Study of the Constitutional History of Rhode Island," "How the Law is Applied by Lawyers, Judges, and Jurors to the Protection of Private Rights," "City Government." The course, begun in November last, has just closed or is about closing. In order to sustain the interest felt by the auditors, and to stimulate further and original study of the topics discussed, a pamphlet has been prepared for gratuitous distribution, consisting of "References to Political and Economic Topics," in the sequence of the several lectures. These have been prepared, with his accustomed thoroughness, by Mr. William E. Foster, of the Providence Public Library, himself one of the lecturers; and not only are the proper works cited, but the public libraries in which they may be consulted are duly indicated. We have heard a good deal about the coöperation of the common schools and the public library, but less about a similar partnership between the public library and the churches. We commend the Providence experiment in this respect, as well as for its example of intervention by the pulpit in politics, in a perfectly unobjectionable way.

—In a long article entitled "Three Modern Authors," contributed by Helena Nyblom to the January number of *Ny Svensk Tidskrift*, ten pages are devoted to a favorable notice of Henry James as a novelist, more especially reviewing the recent Swedish translation, by Erik G. Folcker, of 'The American.' The rarity with which one meets with a happy book, the writer thinks, is due to the fact that, with mankind as with the individual, it becomes impossible, growing steadily older, to look upon life with the bright hopefulness which belongs only to youth. With years come bitter experiences, and with these the sharpened sight which sees that everything that glitters is not gold. It is therefore natural that the youngest people should be the most cheerful, and hence American authors

possess, as yet, the whole charm of youth in their perceptions of life. There is no bitterness in their interpretations of the sorrowful circumstances or misfortunes which they may depict—no hopelessness in their view of life—because they have a belief in the future, as well for the individual as for the race, and because they are, "first and foremost, true men, who neither see double nor half, but, with a pair of strong, clear-seeing eyes, look directly upon nature itself. They possess that freshness which belongs to the Anglo-Saxon race in its best utterances, good nature, a warm, hearty feeling, a large portion of humor, which can change into a noble pathos, but which never becomes sentimental, and is never raw—men who believe in human instincts, and for whom such words as religion, duty, and culture are not entirely old-fashioned, but stand for eternal principles." But Europeans belong to a *blasé* race, an old and tired society, and so, also, are nearly all their authors old and tired, sour or melancholy. It is not *comme il faut* for a Scandinavian writer who wishes to be considered interesting, to exhibit in his books any joy of life.

—To this vitiated taste is to be ascribed the lack of interest manifested by Scandinavians in modern American literary work, the simplicity of which cannot satisfy readers brought up on the highly seasoned literary diet of Europe. The reviewer complains that the Scandinavians, notwithstanding the peculiar interest which they have always taken in things American, have gone to little trouble to acquaint themselves with the modern American authors. When, however, she enumerates the works of Mark Twain, Bret Harte's stories, Howells's 'The Lady of the Aroostook,' and two novels by James ('Roderick Hudson,' and 'The American'), as a complete list of the Scandinavian translations of American works of fiction, she does her countrymen injustice, for to these authors can be added, among others, the names of Longfellow, Poe, Mrs. Stowe, Cooper, Cable, Aldrich, Mrs. Prentiss, Habberton, Boyesen, Miss Phelps, Miss Cummings, and Edward Eggleston. She claims for America two authors of first rank, Henry James, jr., and W. D. Howells, who are declared to be "highly gifted, original artists, who, in powers of observation and style, have not been matched by any European writer since Turgeneff. Which of these two is to be placed first is a matter of taste. They have each great merits and unusual gifts, and are complete masters of their materials." 'The American' is reviewed as a delineation of the strife between new American and old European ideas which will not unite; and the hero, Mr. Newman, is taken as a typical American, and, as such, an admirable specimen of an admired race. The two authors who complete the reviewer's trio, are Henrik Ibsen, whose last drama 'Vildanden' ('The Wild Duck') is noticed; and Turgeneff, whose novel 'Elena' is reviewed in a late Swedish translation.

—When Mr. Albert M. Palmer passed from the Union Square Theatre to the Madison Square, people were surprised, and it was predicted that he would fail because his success had been obtained with the French style of drama, and the Madison Square audience were accustomed to and cared only for highly moral dramas. Whether that public changed its taste, or a new set of theatre-goers came, the new policy was peculiarly highly profitable. The man who succeeds is, of course and necessarily, the man who is in harmony with his age; who floats on the world-current; who feels, consciously or unconsciously, what is and what is to be the trend of the public taste. Mr. Palmer is really taking advantage of a universal tendency. To say no-

thing of England, where it is evident enough, and France, which is the source of all the evil—if evil it is—Germany has entirely revolutionized its theatrical habits. In Berlin, where, thirty years ago, six theatres were half empty, now more than a dozen large theatres and several smaller ones are crowded, especially on Sunday. And the reason is that the theatre no longer attempts to preach morals or to teach politics—it is content to amuse, by story, by scenery, by costume, and in some theatres by want of costume. The idea that the stage can and should have an elevating influence has vanished, say the pessimists. The enthusiastic young men who could share the aspirations of Wilhelm Meister are not to be found nowadays; if any capable of such *Schneidermeier* exist, they are utterly without influence—too few to dare to raise their voices. Indeed, in the present surroundings, it would be impossible that such capacity should be developed. So laments the critic of the *Bundschau* in Germany. In this country the critics are gradually ceasing to lament.

—The Slavs of both the Catholic and Greek persuasions have been celebrating the thousandth anniversary of the death of St. Methodius, "the Apostle to the Slavs," who is believed to have died in 885. Methodius, like his brother and co-worker Cyril, who is considered the inventor of one of the Old-Slavic or Church-Slavic alphabets, is a saint of both churches, the two brothers having been Byzantines by birth and education, and Apostles under the direction of the Popes of Rome, at a time when the great religious schism between the East and West was, through the ambition of the Patriarch Photius, rapidly approaching consummation, but not yet consummated. They converted the people of "Great Moravia" and other western Slavs to Christianity, preaching to them in their vernacular, teaching them the art of reading and writing, translating the Gospels, and thus laying the very first foundations of Slavic literature. Hence it is but natural that Russians and Poles, for instance—though their conversion is of later date—should vie with Bulgarians, Czechs, and Serbs in paying honor to their memory. The celebration is, however, far from being carried on in concord. On the contrary, it has assumed a character of rivalry with pronounced antagonism, the dividing line being both religious and political. The Czechs, Poles, Slovenes, Croats—all Catholics—have selected Velehrad, a small town of Moravia, for the centre of their celebration, and turn their gatherings into a demonstration in favor of West-Slavic federation under the auspices of Austria; while the celebration which took place in the latter part of last month at St. Petersburg was intended to be a declaration in favor of Slavonic union under the aegis of the Czar. The St. Petersburg assemblage was an imposing affair, directed by the Slavic Benevolent Society, and attended by deputations from Bulgaria, Servia, Montenegro, and even Austrian Galicia; but, failing to enlist the sympathies of Catholic Slavs, it failed of its political object. Conspicuous among the foreign visitors were the Servian ex-Premier Ristitch and the Ruthene Naumowicz—both well-known enemies of Austria.

—"Terror ceased, laughter and scepticism began, with Boccaccio," said an Italian epigrammatist—a judgment which partially sums up the beliefs of one school of *Boccaccisti*. On the other hand, there is a rancorous controversy prevailing in this *petit monde* of Boccaccio lovers and students upon the vexed question how far the delightful story-teller really was in advance of his age; how far he believed in the superstitions commonly credited by his contemporaries; and what part of his life and career—if any—showed himself particularly open to suggestions of the

supernatural, to astrological vagaries, and to belief in dreams and portents. Anton Graf, in a recent number of the *Nuova Antologia*, descends vigorously into the mêlée, and triumphantly vindicates his favorite from the charge of excessive superstition. Körting had tried to prove that Boccaccio was a profound believer in dreams, in the spirit of prophecy as communicated to dying persons, in astrology, in strabism of the eyes as indicative of a perverse disposition, and in apparitions of devils under the disguise of exorcised spirits. He was held, also, to believe that Æneas had really descended into hell, and that Virgil was a constructor of magical machines, etc. Graf shows that these charges are only partially true, and that the 'Decamerone' is a just picture of human life in Italy in the thirteenth century, mirroring all its phases, aspects, and beliefs, without necessarily bringing its author under the compulsion of believing what he simply reflects in his wondrous looking-glass. He shows pretty conclusively, in fact, that Boccaccio, *quoad* superstition, is not only far behind his age in credulity and in appetency for the marvellous, but that one great purpose of his matchless art was to ridicule and smile out of existence the gross follies and absurdities in which monks and burghers of that age alike believed. Boccaccio may stand behind the more enlightened Petrarch in positive denunciation of these things, but he is not far behind him; and it is unjust and unhistorical to place one thinker and artist on the highest summit of sane and illuminated thought, while the other grovels below in the valley of superstition. Neither writer is absolutely new and free: both are bound to the past; both revolve in and around it. Boccaccio, to be sure, grew old and recanted, turned his back on the delicious creations of his prime, and tried to cast the mantle of piety and asceticism over the too luxuriant imagination and humor of the 'Decamerone.' But—Boccaccio was old; that is all. And old people are notoriously prone to "take back" things—"go back on themselves," in modern parlance—and abjure their juvenile follies. In his prime Boccaccio was really an iconoclast, and even an advanced liberal.

BAIRD'S HUGUENOT EMIGRATION.

History of the Huguenot Emigration to America. By Charles W. Baird, D.D. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1885. 2 vols., pp. 354, 448.

THE Revocation of the Edict of Nantes will doubtless long remain one of the greatest evidences of national bigotry which English-speaking historians can cite. Although its influence was greatest in France, it may be doubted if even now the full importance of the act is felt by Frenchmen. France is still Catholic, and the ill-timed victory of that faith is naturally passed over as quietly as possible by her historians. But in English literature, on the contrary, an undue prominence is given to the matter, partly from the lack of a parallel case in British history, and partly from the continuance of a genuine sympathy for the sufferers in the cause of Protestantism. It is always impossible to predict the event which will first seize upon the popular mind and memory, but certainly the relative importance or value of the matter seems to have little to do with it. The Covenanters, the Cavaliers, the Huguenots, the Acadians—each group has a prominence in history hard to explain, but undeniable. Despite the enthusiasm of historians, it is impossible to prove that the influx of Huguenots into Great Britain influenced in any degree the affairs of that nation; and it may be added that in the Northern colonies of our own country the effect of the immigration is almost or quite imperceptible. In New England, certainly, the Huguenots disappeared as a distinct element in

the second generation, not from any dislike on the part of their English hosts, but because their distinctive points could not be maintained. The very warmth and fulness of their reception extinguished all national peculiarities. Here and there can be traced to-day the distorted signs of French patronymics, but the bearers are apt to be most unmistakably Yankees. Like the Normans in Ireland, more Irish than the Irish themselves, the Huguenot has become a component part of the nation.

Owing to the inexplicable vagaries of fashion, there has recently been a revival of interest in the history of this immigration, and Doctor Baird's handsome volumes not only are a sign thereof, but will be the means, doubtless, of extending the feeling. The family records of many a name will be explored, and many a man will take a new interest in one of his many great-grandmothers. It is a good thing to awake such an interest: the records will be of a community pure, devout, and brave; but we must not be led into an overestimate of its importance. The fact cannot be too plainly set forth that the French immigration was vastly inferior to the English in amount, in quality, and in results. So far as we can judge, had a Huguenot colony been attempted independent of English foundation and preparation, it would have utterly failed. Parkman has shown the limited success of French Catholic colonies, fostered by the Church and the State; deprived of such powerful support, what could the fugitives from Rochelle have established?

In looking through Doctor Baird's volumes, the reader is at once reminded of the great difference between France and England. In the latter country we find a society of infinite gradations, socially, from the highest to the lowest, all connected by ties of blood and community of interest. In France there was a nobility and a peasantry, with hardly a trace of intermediate classes. It is not without reason that history is so taken up with the records of the rich: the individual disappears in the lower ranks. The philosophical student nowadays affects to despise the records of courts and parliaments, and clamors for the history of the people; but the most he attains is a record of the shifting sands that have obliterated villages, of the insatiate waves that have engulfed the seaside cliffs. Results appear, but the instruments are lost. And the more closely the work of nations approximates to that of the mighty powers of nature, so much more scanty and monotonous must be their annals. Circumstances, perhaps, have favored the English race, but it seems to be replete with individuals. Each family becomes a unit, each pedigree a distinct strand in the great web. But a few years ago the historian of England's share in the Crimean War issued his volumes on a scale apparently disproportionate to the subject. Critics remarked with a sneer that every ensign who fell on Russian soil was described as fully as though he were a marshal of France. Yet this insistence on individuality goes far to explain the continuous importance of the race. "Every French soldier carries his marshal's baton in his knapsack"; but if he miss of the supreme end, he falls unrecognized.

In the history of the Huguenots we find mainly the brief annals of the lower classes. Few noblemen remained true to the faith under Louis XIV. The great mass of the Protestants were of the common people. They were brave, honest, and faithful to death, but they were of the class of the Covenanters rather than of the Puritans. Their history should be studied in the mass rather than in detail, so few can be segregated and the differences are so slight. It is but just to Doctor Baird to say that he seems to have done the best possible with the meagre materials in

his possession. He has brought out much new information, and he has drawn touching pictures of men who relinquished every worldly blessing at the demand of their religion. But when he tries to give us the details of their history, the wherewithal is lacking. A scanty trace of one or two generations in France can be found in a few cases, but in others all that remains is the mere mention of the place of emigration.

If we were disposed to find any fault with the way in which Doctor Baird has performed his task, it would be in the lack of clearness in his arrangement. His citation of authorities is not sufficiently ample, and his notes are too fragmentary. He treats at one time of the localities whence the emigrants came, at another of their new homes, but under neither heading does he bring together all his information into one focus. These two volumes are a valuable and interesting contribution to our history, but we venture to predict they will be more appreciated by the genealogist than the historian, and for the genealogist they do but indicate the need of further search. It may, however, well be that in treating of those Southern colonies in which the Huguenot element was more important, Doctor Baird will be able to present more valuable results. At least, so little has been done in the way of publishing local histories in those colonies, that the first comer will seem to possess the whole territory.

MARLOWE.—II.

The English Dramatists: The Works of Christopher Marlowe. Edited by A. H. Bullen, M.A. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1885. 3 vols.

IN these plays, as might be guessed after what we have said, is no real fun-making of any sort, nor is there a single character in them capable of the making or enjoying of fun, or of knowing it when he sees or hears it. There are, indeed, certain "situations" which perhaps were meant to be funny, and most likely were so to the men of the time, who shouted their jungs out over the kings in harness and *Tamburlaine's* cry to them: "Hola, ye pampered jades of Asia!" Thus—to take an instance out of a stage direction—"Myccetes" (whose army is on the ground) "comes out alone with his crown in his hand, offering to hide it," and *Tamburlaine*, with another great army there to fight *Myccetes*, joins him, asking: "Is this your crown?" Of unintended funniness is this, where the hitherto shepherd *Tamburlaine*, at the outset of his great march across the Eastern World, has the Princess *Zenocrate*, daughter of the Soldan of Egypt, a prisoner, beseeching him as a "shepherd" (for by his "seeming" he is "so mean a man") to "pity her distressed plight," and presently, without the slightest stay in their talking, he says:

"Lie here, ye weeds that I disdain to wear! [his pastoral garments]
This complete armor and this curtle-axe
Are adjuncts more befitting *Tamburlaine*!"

as if the intermediate process—whatever it might be with a Scythian shepherd—between the wearing of a garb which betokened him so mean a man as a keeper of sheep, and the appearing in full effulgence of a warrior's armor, had been rehearsed while he stood there talking with the Soldan's daughter. Other things of this sort might be found if looked for.

Now, that the bringing in of fun and frolic to offset sharply the mournful and heart-barrowing of the play brought wondrous life-likeness into our English tragedy, others can see easily besides ourselves; and that a new zest for readers, as well as for seers and hearers, of plays in our tongue has come with that bringing-in. Our thoughtful, all-prodding, all-weighing cousin-Germans were drawn, without a will for it, to

English tragedy, and Frenchmen, too, whose kindred to us and to our tongue is further off a good deal, were drawn to it against their will. And, whatever critics may have said about "unities" and dignity, all the world likes it better, and will keep it in a warmer place in the heart, because its gloom is not all gloomy. Oneness of mood, which must last long unchanged, as of iron or clay, does not belong to men. In the glimmer of darkened rooms from which the dead has been lately borne, will come out a burst of mirthfulness at unawares, and this from no "widows of Ephesus," but from true mourners. Sometimes the merriness is a fitting and most touching element in the action and passion. In that poem truly dramatic, though no drama, and of marvellous beauty and sadness, 'The Bride of Lammermoor,' the mirth made by and through old Caleb Balderstone belongs as truly to the sadness of the tale as the white satin or silken lining, or the work in bullion thread, belongs to the black velvet of the pall.

The Greeks and Latins, as we know, unlike our own greatest writers, held these dark and light things wide apart, one from the other; keeping sad steadily to sad, merry to merry. So Frenchmen of the classic rank, whose tongue is still less than they are either Greek or Roman, have held, with might and main, to the same rule. Their French speech often stumbles in trying to march stately on sublime heights; yet one can never with their leave smile in one of their tragedies. Any funny thing must have slipped in in spite of the author (as there will be sometimes one too sly for him); but can we help smiling when the Cid, who has killed in a duel the father of his betrothed, and is now formally pursued by her as the avenger of blood, makes his way to her in some absence of the never-absent duenna of Spanish maidens, and proclaims that to his true love's champion in the lists (whom she insists upon his doing his best to kill for his own glory's sake and to prevent her having to marry her victorious champion, who is hateful—poor fellow!) he, the Cid, her lover, will present not his *ric*, his *âme*, his *tête*, his *cervelle*, his *poitrine*, or his *poumon*, but his "estomac ouvert," "ravished with the thought" that it is for her "honor" that he is thus putting in use his very best knowledge of anatomy?

Frenchmen, beside Molière, can make fun, and even the writers of some of their best tragedies; but never, of their own will, in their tragedies. Marlowe could not, at any time. But one thing stands out steadfast in our minds after his scenes and characters all are gone, and that is the *Verse*. With this the poet sometimes throws a flash of glory upon a mountain-top, sometimes a golden gladness over all the heavens; he pours a torrent, splashing and roaring and glittering, down a cliff's front, or through a winding glen; he shows a wood waving with green, or standing thick with cool shade; within sight of the many-towered shore he makes a sea heaving with broad-sailed, deep-hulled merchantmen, laboring toward some great mart; he draws a throbbing, boding gloom over earth and sky, or makes the spring or summer landscape cheery with bird-song and with the flitting of birds' wings. All comes to us as it went from him: the angle of reflection to the reader's eye, as elsewhere in optics, is the same as the angle of incidence from the author's mind. He can do, in verse, anything that he knows, and we see all done, and wonder at the man's strength of bodying and uttering—as great, when at its best, as in Lucretius, but not so often at its best as in Lucretius. So Marlowe made Blank Verse almost what it was ever afterward.

By the time of Shakspeare's best play-writing, and, of course, long before Milton's time, that measure knew itself and was known in the realm

of English poetry, and came at call in it; and it wore, always, much the same outward likeness. In Marlowe's plays we find it learning to have a life, and to live its own life; we find it growing, and taking shape and character. With him it is most often dignified, sometimes impressive and even splendid; now and then, indeed, it is fairly sublime. Often, however, Marlowe's verse is awkward and ungainly, and—alas! not seldom—laughable or paltry—coming to the ground with the thought (which it ought to have carried) underneath. This one does not like to say of a man strong and skilful, who has done much good work; but it is only plainer than most plain things that sometimes he himself, as one might do who was ashamed or afraid of having wrought some of his work too well, would with his own hand mar it after the doing. This fear or shame, though not often true of any man, might perhaps have been true of him, for his fellows and comrades were mostly a roystering, reckless, chaffing, scoffing set. Not a few of them were nasty, and slippery, and cold-blooded as fishes, and, like fishes, ready to snatch at and tear, and to gulp down in gobbets, and batten themselves upon, any unlucky one of their own kind who chanced at the time to be swimming weakly or sickly. Among such comrades a man might easily be shamed for having shown too lofty thought or too good feeling, or be afraid of showing them. In most ways Marlowe was not better than the rest: there were sad things enough about his whole life, and they were crowded thick enough about his death, to make him seem almost the worst among them.

The want in Marlowe of that finest fashioning and fitting, together from which spring freely forth, ever fresh, mirth, harmless as happy; sadness needing to be soothed; quick sorrow with those who are hurt; love, through all the blood, for what is great and true—the want of this best making-up, and the want of much growing toward it, or effort after it, as life among men went on, was likely, more than scoffing ways of his comrades, or even the "drink-drowned"-ness of "spright" (spirit) which Hall gives him, to make him mar his better work. The "spright," in that state, "rapt to the threefold loft of heaven-height," as Hall says, might have one headlong downfall at a time, for it is unsteady, unsafe treading on the clouds, then; but not a soaring high aloft, and tumbling, and soaring, and tumbling, between lines following each other closely. The best genius, from being fully akin to others of man's kind because it has so much of mankind in it, can easily go along one or other of the many channels that lead into its fellows, and look back at itself and its work from that side. This Marlowe could not; and if it be he that tries to make us laugh, as in "Faustus" by a leg coming off the wizard, and elsewhere by such worse than clown's play, it is beyond bearing. The likelihood is that the worst of this is not his; for not only were players and playwrights wont to take and use one another's thoughts and words, much as fellows of some college-clubs borrow, without asking, of one another, and wear, shirtstuds, or neckties, or waistcoats, even, but any of them almost might write any clownery into any one's play that was on the boards, and anywhere in it. That borrowing and using Shakspeare did, in a large, free way, and the putting in of what was meant to be witty or droll, to any one else's plays, was often done and known to be done; sometimes *ordered*, of some one or more who happened to have the time and will.

The history of blank verse in English is but short. We had had our ten-syllable verse in plenty—in Chaucer as well as afterward in Dryden or Pope; but everything with our fathers rhymed; for rhyme had got hold of the ear of Christendom. Their Latin measures, even, had

been turning into rhyme, for hundreds of years. Happily, just as it was growing early summer to the thought and fancy of the English race, the Earl of Surrey, a gallant, clever, and accomplished knight, and a deft worker in English rhyming verse, of many sorts, found, when in Italy, a measure of another sort than any used in England. Rhythmic it was; dignified, and yet easy; free from all bondage to rhyme, where rhyming might be a bondage. Of this great fault glaring example may be found in plays (as of Racine and Corneille—great writers both) where the life-likeness is hindered very much by the rhyming of the speeches, and where a frequent change of speakers makes the sudden flitting of the rhyme from one to another tiresome and absurd.

Our English poetry, as we find it in Chaucer, is a supple, lively thing, that would bear cutting and bending and pulling, like every young language—like Homer's Greek, where the many vowels, blending sometimes, sometimes sundering; the various alternative endings; the various inflections for the same verb or noun, make it, for sweetness of sound, with freedom and strength, the most perfect vehicle for uttering thought and figure; not telling and pleading and love-speaking, and for fastening upon the memory, that ever was in the world. Our English, though never so free as Greek, and very far less melodious, yet was strong and lively in Chaucer's time, and freer than now, because it had, side by side, old forms and new of the same word; could cut off and put on, now sound a vowel and now keep it still, and had more double endings than we have. The Italian had much the same qualities, one by one, that we have given to the Greek; its verse, therefore, had much the same character as the Greek, and this whether rhyming or unrhyming. All its verse had kept the double ending, which we have so much lost, though with the Germans it is still, and may be forever, easy. In the Italian blank verse the last foot is that of the old Greek and Latin heroic and trochaic measures—a long and a doubtful syllable; its rhyming verse only takes on another grace. It has the double ending always—perhaps too much; certainly too much for any but a speech flowing with vowels. Here is a bit (unrhymed) of about the time of Surrey, taken at first glance:

"Quindi uscan fuor voce amor e dolet
E di cenci, e di misere, e di sirene,
Di sirene celesti, e di uscan suon
Scavi e chiari, e tanto altro diletto,
Ch' attento, godendo ed ammirando,
Mi fermi—"
—Tasso, *Aminta*.

Even the eye sees the soft melody of these words; but let a gentle voice read them to the ear rightly!

This measure Surrey took, without the double ending but admitting it, and set over, into the first blank verse that ever was used in English, two books of the *Æneid*. A fair specimen, perhaps, is this:

"As when Apollo leaveth Lycia,

When that he walkes upon Mount Cynthus' topp,
His sparkled tresse reposit with garlandes softe
Of tender leaves, and trussed up with golde,
His quivering darts clattering behind his backe—
So freshe and lustie did *Æneas* come."

Let Surrey, who brought over for us this measure from Italy, have his credit; and that it was a poet who saw the worth of it, the spirit and strength of these few words shall witness: "His quivering darts clattering behind his backe" is Virgil's "*tela sonant humeris*" (his weapons sound, on his shoulders). Of course, a little bit like this above can give no sufficient acquaintance for a critical analysis; for this a good deal more must be read, and will be pleasant reading.

Marlowe took this verse as it came from Surrey's hand, and what he made of it let our readers see in "Tamburlaine" and elsewhere. A little bit, like that from Surrey, and of exactly corresponding character, we give:

"As when the seaman sees the Hyades
Gather an army of Cimmerian clouds
(Auster and Aquilon, with winged steeds
All-sweating, tilt about the watery heavens,
With shivering spears enforcing thunder-claps,
And from their shields strikes flames of lightning),
All-fearful folds his sails and sounds the main,
Lifting his prayers to the heavens for aid
Against the terror of the winds and waves—
So fares Agydas—"

RECENT SOLAR RESEARCH.

CAROLINE ISLAND is situate in the South Pacific mid-ocean, in latitude 10° south, and in longitude 150° west of Greenwich. Before their arrival there, the island was only known to the astronomers of the American eclipse expedition of 1883 to be "seven to eight miles long and two to three miles wide, well covered with cocoanut and other trees, to consist of many islets encircling a lagoon, with no anchorage, but a landing (not always safe), and to have about thirty inhabitants, including a single European resident." When we recall the fact that total solar eclipses, all-important to the astronomer who would study the sun and its surroundings, occur about once in two years, and that the average duration of the total phase of such eclipses is less than three minutes, never, under the most favorable conditions, being so long as eight minutes, and rarely so long as five or six, there will be no surprise at the enthusiasm which conducted a party of astronomers to so forbidding a spot. For prediction showed them that, if the sky were propitious, they might on May 6, 1883, enjoy the uninterrupted observation of the totally eclipsed sun for a period nearly six minutes in duration. The path of this eclipse, otherwise most favorable, lay entirely upon the waters of the ocean, save only this little island. Unless it could be occupied, the unusual opportunity for solar research must pass by unused.

It is worthy of note that the conservatism of astronomers would without doubt have resulted in the utter neglect of this eclipse, had not Mr. Charles H. Rockwell, of Tarrytown, urged the organization of the expedition. At his suggestion Professor Young brought the subject before the National Academy of Sciences in November, 1882, which body commended the project to the Navy Department for such aid and facilities as could be best afforded. Private subscription failed, and the readiness of the Navy Department to coöperate led to the presentation of a memorial to Congress which gave a grant of \$5,000—with such delay, however, that the necessary advance of a considerable portion of this sum had to be made by the trustees of the Bache fund of the National Academy. Prof. Edward S. Holden, Director of the Washburn Observatory of the University of Wisconsin, was appointed the scientific chief of the expedition, and the party left New York on March 2, bound for Callao via Panama. From Callao they were transported in the U. S. S. *Hartford* to Caroline Island, arriving there on April 21. In company with Professor Holden were Doctor Hastings, the son of the Johns Hopkins University, Mr. Rockwell, Mr. Upton, then of the Army Signal Office, and others. At Panama they were joined by Mr. Laurance and Mr. Woods, delegates of the Solar Physics Committee of the Royal Society of Great Britain, who were charged with the conduct of special photographic observations. A French expedition, under the command of Doctor Janssen, of Paris, came to the island shortly after the arrival of the English and American observers.

The interesting memoir of the National Academy ('Report of the Eclipse Expedition, etc.') is much more than a technical report on the dry scientific details of the work of eclipse-observers. In connection with his narration of the ocean voyage of 4,300 miles from Callao to the Islands, which occupied twenty-nine days, and during which neither sail nor land excepting the Mag-

dalena Island of the Marquesas group was sighted, Professor Holden aptly cites the entry of Darwin in his 'Journal of a Voyage in the *Beagle*,' under date of December 19, 1835:

"We may now consider that we have nearly crossed the Pacific. It is necessary to sail over this great ocean to comprehend its immensity. Moving quickly onwards for weeks together, we meet with nothing but the same blue, profoundly deep ocean. Even within the archipelagoes the islands are mere specks and far distant one from the other. Accustomed to look at maps drawn on a small scale, where dots, shading, and names are crowded together, we do not rightly judge how infinitely small the proportion of dry land is to the water of this vast expanse."

Professor Holden prefixes to the report a history of the island, necessarily brief, for it was first seen in 1795, by Captain Boughton, and not much is known of it until 1868, when Captain Nares, R. N., made it a part of the British possessions. The present lessee of the island, Mr. Arundell, of New Zealand, has contributed to the Report some drawings of very curious old marais—burying or sacrificial places, which were originally found in the progress of guano operations on the island. The blocks and walls of these graves are built of coral and coral conglomerate, in some of which, when first discovered, were found "stone axes, and highly polished green stones, such as are used by the Maoris of New Zealand, and spears of the same description." These places must have been built by a native population, but no natives were known to inhabit the island at its first occupation by the whites.

Lieutenant Quattrough's survey and description of the island as it was in 1883 follow, from which we learn that "the atoll consists of a chain of twenty-five little islets, well covered with trees and shrubbery, the whole forming a quiet scene of grove and lake, charmingly set off by the contrasting ocean." A few photographic views are so reproduced as to show the characteristic vegetation and reef-beaches with fine effect. The eclipse party left the island inhabited by seven persons—four men, one woman, and two children—who plant and take care of the young cocoanut trees. The climate of the island was found to be warm, with an equable temperature and occasional sudden showers.

Mr. Upton's contribution to the report is a copious article on the meteorology of Caroline Island during the entire period of the party's sojourn, as well as on the day of the eclipse. The botany of the island received the attention of Doctor Dixon, United States Navy, whose collection of specimens is discussed by Professor Trelease, of Madison. Also, the zoölogy of the atoll is abundantly dwelt upon by a number of members of the expedition, particularly the lepidoptera being well cared for by Doctor Palisa, of Vienna, who accompanied the French expedition, and presented to the American party a nearly complete collection of duplicates.

The physical and astronomical observations of the eclipse are related in about fifty pages—the concluding third of the volume—and the more important results must be summarized in a word. Professor Holden's method of attack closes discussion on the subject of the mythical Vulcans. Doctor Hastings's spectroscopic and polariscopic observations of the eclipse constitute the most valuable feature of the work, and are ably discussed with reference to his diffraction-theory of the corona, which physicists who have heretofore doubted will now be obliged to recognize as replacing to a very wide extent the older theory of an outer solar atmosphere. Doctor Hastings has also supplemented his work with a general review of all the results of previous observations of the corona, of whatever sort—a task which his thorough acquaintance with the subject has en-

abled him to execute in a satisfactory and permanent form.

The work of Professor Langley in the fields of solar inquiry is now too well known by the casual reader and too fully appreciated by the scientific investigator to call for more than a brief characterization here. The Mount Whitney expedition was the naturally evolved result of specific researches in the absorption of heat in the spectrum, made at Allegheny. These in 1880 had led to conclusions, of interest to astronomy and meteorology, which it was found desirable to verify by experiments on a very elevated mountain. The necessary instrumental outfit had been provided by the liberality of a citizen of Pittsburgh, when, the bearings of this research on the general objects of meteorological inquiry becoming known to the Chief Signal Officer of the Army, the expedition received material assistance from the Signal Service, and proceeded in July of 1881 to Mount Whitney, in Southern California, under the official direction of General Hazen.

We cannot more fitly summarize the bearings of this research on meteorology in its broadest sense than Prof. Langley has himself done in the initial paragraphs of his introduction:

"If the observation of the amount of heat the sun sends the earth is among the most important and difficult in astronomical physics, it may also be termed the fundamental problem of meteorology, nearly all whose phenomena would become predictable if we knew both the original quantity and kind of this heat; how it affects the constituents of the atmosphere on its passage earthward; how much of it reaches the soil; how, through the aid of the atmosphere, it maintains the surface temperature of this planet; and how, in diminished quantity and altered kind, it is finally returned to outer space. Meteorologists have till lately occupied themselves more with the secondary effects of this solar radiation than with the considerations just referred to, though this primary study will at least enable us to survey subordinate and familiar phenomena from a more general point of view, and will correct some errors. The knowledge that the solar heat finds its way in more easily than out, and the inference that our atmosphere acts like the glass of a hot-bed in raising the temperature of the soil—even this knowledge, imperfect and misleading as it may be when thus stated, has been most useful in giving us a key to subsidiary phenomena."

The results of experiments at the Allegheny Observatory in 1880 and 1881 showed that the thermal phenomena on which the existence of organic life depends are due to the selective absorption of the atmosphere, without which the temperature of the soil, even in the tropics at mid-day under a vertical sun, would fall to some hundreds of degrees below zero; and this would still be true even if the atmosphere were supposed to retain all its present constituents and to transmit all the heat it does now.

The constant of the solar heat was, then, the next thing to be determined, and it could be measured directly if it were possible to ascend above the atmosphere. But since we can only experiment upon the amount received after absorption by that part of the atmosphere above us, the exact determination of this constant presupposes a minute knowledge of the way in which the sun's heat is affected by the earth's atmosphere:

"With whatever pains we measure, however, we remain at the mercy of the fluctuations of our lower air, and are compelled to make assumptions which we would gladly avoid. . . . On many points we know just enough to distrust our own enforced assumptions, without being able to positively verify or disprove them. Besides such difficulties as these, arising from our ignorance, we are met with almost insuperable physical ones, coming from the incessant clouds, mist, and changes of our lower atmosphere, . . . which make it literally true that not one day of unexceptionable conditions is to be found in an average year, while yet daily observations must be commenced with every clear morning, since

we never know which is the day which may prove fair to its close."

Professor Langley's investigations of the heat in the spectrum having proved the best thermo-pile entirely inadequate to measure such delicate thermal conditions, he was soon led to the invention of the bolometer, or force-measurer, an instrument now well known as an adjunct in spectrum research, and so sensitive in its construction that, under an apparently clear sky, it "constantly sees clouds which the eye does not." The capacity of the means of research at low altitudes being soon exhausted, a wholly different method of observation became necessary, viz., that of ascending a very high mountain and comparing observations at its summit with others at its base, thus directly measuring the absorptions which the rays have actually undergone. Clear air, great altitude, a dry climate, and southern latitude were the chief desirable conditions, together with abrupt rise, so that two contiguous stations with very different altitudes might be occupied.

After a number of points had been carefully considered, finally, upon the advice of Mr. Clarence King, and with the concurrently favorable opinion of officers of the Coast Survey and others familiar with the region, Mount Whitney, in the Sierra Nevada range of Southern California, was selected as the most eligible eminence for the prosecution of the research. It was desirable to leave at least one-third of the entire atmosphere beneath the elevated station, implying a height of some fourteen thousand feet, and the summit of Whitney was known to be elevated nearly fifteen thousand feet. Professor Langley, in his report ('Researches on Solar Heat,' etc.), presents, in the form of a diary full of exciting adventure, the events of each day of the ascent of the mountain. Camp was established on an excellent site at an elevation of twelve thousand feet, in a well-watered meadow about two hundred yards in diameter, and surrounded by precipitous cliffs a thousand to fifteen hundred feet high, forming the base and flank of Whitney Peak. Carefully scrutinizing the limb of the sun at this great altitude, Professor Langley's trained eye found the air filled with motes between the place of observation and the diffracting edge of a distant peak, showing that the dust-shell which encircles the earth exists at an altitude of nearly three miles, notwithstanding the favorable conditions for purity of the atmosphere. Professor King has expressed the opinion that this dust above the Sierra Nevada has been borne across the Pacific, and owes its origin to the "loess" of China.

Owing to a chain of unfortunate circumstances, the 22d of August arrived before Professor Langley found himself able to ascend the peak of Whitney. He found the summit an area of three or four acres, but existence would only be possible there with permanent shelter from the wind and cold; and it was evident that all hope of making regular observations on the peak that season must be foregone, and that operations must be confined to the mountain camp. Attempts were made, with specially constructed apparatus, to observe the solar corona in full sunlight, but a disheartening accident rendered it impossible just as success seemed near. With the other instruments, however, the observations most essential to the purposes of the expedition were secured, in spite of adverse circumstances; and by the 8th of September, the purity of the air being already much impaired by the prevalence of forest fires, immediate descent was decided upon.

The chapters following this introductory portion of the report relate all the observations in detail, and contain the necessary discussion of them together with the results arrived at. For

the value of the constant of solar heat, derived from the labors of the expedition, and carefully considered in connection with the work of previous investigators, Professor Langley finds an equivalent of *three calories*, which, expressed in terms of melting ice, implies a solar radiation capable of melting an ice-shell 54.45 metres deep annually over the whole surface of the earth. In conclusion, Professor Langley urges the occupation of the summit of Mount Whitney as a permanent observing station for the derivation of results in this and allied lines of research, which would be of the greatest service in the solution of the intricate problems of meteorology and solar physics. If his noble enthusiasm in this work had done nothing more, it would have been enough to show the falseness of the positions held by previous investigators, and to assure future workers in the same fields that the action of an atmosphere is incomparably more complex than the ordinary theory assumes it to be. He surely has made plain the best of grounds for his own belief that Mount Whitney is the most admirable site on the North American Continent for the conduct of research of this character, and he has no hesitation in asserting that neither the Italian Government, with its observatory on *Ætna*, the French with the *Puy de Dôme*, nor any nation at any other occupied station, possesses a site to rival Whitney in its advantages. It is gratifying to observe that Professor Langley's recommendation that it be declared a Government reservation has been favorably considered by the President, and that Mount Whitney is now available for research in this and similar fields of inquiry. It is to be hoped that our Government will speedily take such action as will lead to the thorough development of the extraordinary facilities of the site.

The Religious Aspects of Philosophy: a Critique of the Bases of Conduct and of Faith. By Josiah Royce, Ph.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 12mo, pp. 484.

THE brilliant lectures on ethical philosophy that attracted so much attention in Cambridge when they were recently delivered there by Professor Royce, were well worth presenting to a larger audience in book form. They were not at all in the line of ordinary college text-books. They were written to set forth a new basis for the moral law, and a new conception of its divine source. The title is too modest. The atmosphere of the best modern thought, both philosophical and poetical, is felt on every page, but there is no attempt at any systematic review or criticism of it, except so far as is necessary to help forward the argument.

Starting from scepticism, Mr. Royce works his way out into an idealist position, though one that is nearer to transcendental theism than to conservative orthodoxy. The first half of the volume takes up the ethical basis of conduct, and is written in an extremely animated and forcible style, and we do not know of any recent essay in ethics at once so incisive and so incomplete. Mr. Royce feels the necessity of connecting rules of conduct with human needs, but he is unwilling to accept the pleasure-and-pain theory on account of its selfish tendencies, taking issue with Spencer here because the egoism which seems so unobjectionable to the English evolutionist is quite intolerable to him. In the same way he feels the necessity for strengthening his ethical system with the strong force of sympathy, which has so much power in modern life in the suppression or decay of the hotter elemental passions; and yet he sees the sentimental weakness in which it is so apt to end, and gives a lively description of several of its worst forms. There is the shallow one in which the tender-hearted avoid the sight

of those more serious forms of suffering which it would be difficult to cure, too fond of their own sensitiveness to be anything but "selfish in this world of pain. They must forget that there is suffering. Their pity makes them cruel"; and they feel bound to insist "that the police shall prevent people like Lazarus, covered with sores, from lying in plain sight at the gate." Then there are those whose pity irritates them to selfish hatred at the sight of suffering, and those who love to pose as humane commentators or heroic endurers of sorrows they do not really share. "They rejoice to find some one overwhelmed with woe. The happy man is to them a worthless fellow. High temperature is needed to soften their hearts. They would be miserable in Paradise at the sight of so much tedious contentment; but they would leap for joy if they could but hear of a lost soul to whom a drop of water could be carried."

The end of all this for them is selfishness; and for us the painful scepticism naturally resulting from the failure to harmonize such jarring aims. And yet this very scepticism, urges Mr. Royce, assumes that they should be harmonized, and thus makes way for a new moral principle, which should straightway become the basis of our conduct—namely, to get such a realizing insight into the character of others that we can make their will our will, and aim our acts at their good, whether it involves happiness or not. The duty of acquiring and acting upon this moral insight into the will of others is the theme of the first part of the volume, and Mr. Royce presents it in a very eloquent and forcible way; but it hardly seems solid enough to serve his purpose as a basis for the whole moral code, for it does not escape the difficulties which attach to every attempt to reach altruism from individual instinct. Why should one seek this moral insight, or, having attained it, why should he yield to it, if following the general will is to be at the cost of trouble to himself? If Mr. Royce's sceptic dwelt on the folly of such an unprofitable yielding to sentiment, he would hardly feel his doubts satisfied with the dubious intellectual instinct to harmonize jarring aims, and he would probably go on to say that the lack of authority was not the worst defect in the scheme. The will of other men seems too human, too mediocre, too deficient in the loftier attributes which the Christian finds in the divine will.

Suppose that by this moral insight we have brought ourselves into harmony with a friend whose character is cruel: are we to become so too? Or if we had lived in the sensual days of Imperial Rome, ought we to have adopted that corrupt universal will as a standard? Evidently Mr. Royce's form of the ethics of sympathy would not work much better than the ones he rejects, unless some means can be found of raising it above mediocrity. But he does not seem to see this clearly, apparently because, without his knowing it, there has crept into his conception of that conjoint will which is to result from the merging our neighbor's will with our own, the assumption that the common aim will then be the highest good. As he leaves the subject in his first part, it might be expressed in Pope's well-known couplet, with a few variations:

"And spite of pride, in erring reason's spite,
One truth is clear—whatever all wish is right."

But it should be said that in the latter part there is a short passage referring to the need of exact science to determine the true connection of facts in the divine mind, which indicates that the author passes in some way from the universal human will to the divine will. This faith in the will of collective humanity is an old and a proud one, appearing in many forms—in the deference paid by the Romans to the law of nature, and by the Catholic Church to the council, for instance;

but it is rather out of date, notwithstanding the ingenious and original way in which Mr. Royce treats it. The metaphysical basis has not the strength of the other beliefs—either the religious one, with its divine sanction and divine superiority, or the Positive one, in which morality is treated as the demand of the race to have those rules obeyed which science shows to be necessary for its life and growth. It is not that Mr. Royce's theory is untrue, but that it needs to be supplemented by a profounder guiding principle, either of revelation or science.

In the second part of the work, Mr. Royce pursues much the same method. He gives a clear description of the difficulties that scepticism raises about the existence of evil, and the knowledge of what is right and true. He thinks that the old design argument loses its force in the face of evolution, and that evolution itself, with its long alternations of growth and decay, and its prospect of final dissolution, is as empty of religious significance as the rise and fall of the tide. He sees no care for individual life or even the immortality of the race; but evil surrounds us, and, in the absence of any certainty about the external world, we have no test of truth or falsehood, for we cannot be sure that there is any real relation between our ideas and the objects they refer to.

In these doubts, however, lie the seeds of faith; for under them and implied in them is the conviction that there is a test of truth somewhere, a real connection between our thoughts and their objects. And the thing to which this belief really points, Mr. Royce thinks, is an idealistic conception akin to Bishop Berkeley's, of an infinite divine mind in which all things, both material and immaterial, exist as thoughts, and outside of which there is nothing. To this infinite Intelligence the past, the present, and the future all are one, and the actual and the possible fall together in one truth. Truth is God, and we are to aim at losing our lives in the life divine. The world must be not only good but best, for no unsatisfied desire can exist in the Infinite. Death, pain, and even weakness of character are only seeming evils, which we are to look at with stoical superiority, convinced that they are really part of the universal good. Our own bad wills are the only evils, and their conquest is goodness recognized by God and rewarded by his infinite rest. And as practical life required first of all the moral insight into the universal will of man, so religious life requires first of all a spiritual insight into the divine Intelligence and a realization of the Eternal life.

Certainly, there is much that is fine in this unemotional and scholarly conception of the divine Essence, and it is urged with a Carlylean earnestness of phrase that makes it seem more warm and more alive than our transcript. But, after all, to the common-sense Yankee reader it will all seem very remote and unsubstantial—too sublimated and metaphysical, indeed, for daily use. In this passionless sphere of pure intellect, where God is all and truth depends merely upon his thinking it; where the world of matter, and even our own souls, are only thoughts in that other Intelligence, with no reality corresponding to them; where life is to be the adoption of the will of others, strengthened by stoical indifference to external suffering, and ending at last in the infinite rest—in all this, optimistic and lofty as it is, there is more of a student's dreamland than of satisfaction for the cravings of the human soul.

Papers of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens. Vol. I. 1882-83. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co. 1885. vii, 262.

THE unbounded enthusiasm of Doctor Schliemann

has met with much criticism, and indeed the sober judgment must shear and pare on all sides when approaching his works; but enthusiasm has its value even when carried to excess. It interests and excites by its own fervor, if in nothing but to oppose and find arguments to answer it. It draws attention to the subject, where volumes of calm exposition might sink into the oblivion of the special and narrow field of its followers. The widely increased interest in active archaeology within the past ten years is no doubt in part due to the success and enthusiasm of the excavator of Troy, Mycenæ, Orchomenus, and Tiryns. Within that period the Archaeological Institute of America has been founded, and its offshoot, the School of Classical Studies, has been established at Athens. How this lodgment was made in the very heart of the classical world was told last year by the facile pen of Professor Goodwin, the founder and first director, in a bulletin of the school. We are now presented with a considerable volume containing the major part of the work accomplished during the first year, comprising five papers of the students and one from the director, under the editorship of Professor Goodwin and Mr. Thomas H. Ludlow. The first paper contains the inscriptions discovered at Assos by the American expedition, twenty-four of which are now in the Boston Museum. These have been edited by Doctor Sterrett with translations and notes, and the most important are given in facsimile. Four have a philological interest, since they are couched in the Æolic dialect. As the editors tell us, "grammarians will rejoice that the Æolic dialect has been enriched by one important verbal form." Not even so much as this can be said of the remainder. One probably warmed the cockles of a Roman emperor's heart, heaping upon Caligula, as it does, the fulsome flattery for which he so much thirsted. We must be pardoned for rating it less highly, knowing his character as we do. The second paper contains a series of inscriptions copied at Tralles by Doctor Sterrett and Professor Ramsay, already published in the *Mittheilungen* of the German Institute of Athens. Many are badly mutilated, and afford opportunity for ingenious restoration. Doctor Sterrett has won an enviable name as a scholar and as an active and efficient explorer.

Next follow three articles, each descriptive of a famous building, the Dionysiac Theatre, by J. R. Wheeler, the temple of Olympian Zeus, by L. Bevier, and the Erechtheum, by H. N. Fowler. These do not lay claim to much originality, but are careful studies of these structures on the spot, and are intended to relate their history and describe their present condition, with some discussion of the varied opinions held in relation to them by those who have preceded them in such work. They are useful contributions to a general knowledge of the subjects, and are well worthy of the space they occupy. Among other points that we miss may be instanced any allusion to the seating capacity of the great theatre. The vague statement of Plato and the loose calculation of Dyer are unsatisfactory. In the bibliography of the subject of the Erechtheum no mention is made of the discussion of it by C. T. Newton in the *British Museum Inscriptions*, except under the general head of reference to "inscriptions." It deserves more consideration.

Professor Goodwin has attacked a long-standing and much-vexed problem, the relative position of the Greek and Persian forces at the battle of Salamis. The ancient authorities of chief importance on the subject are Æschylus, Herodotus, probably Ephorus in Diodorus, and Plutarch—the first an eye-witness, the second a generation, the third a century later, while Plutarch, appealing also to other authorities, belongs to the second century of our own era. To reconcile these au-

thorities with each other and with the actual geography of the place is the task which many have tried to accomplish, but felt constrained to abandon. Our elder historians, like Thirlwall, describe the Persians as blockading the exits from the Bay of Salamis on the night preceding the battle, after Themistocles had given them the information that the Greeks were planning to slip away and sail for the Isthmus. This manoeuvre was effected by despatching a squadron of 200 ships to the western or Megaric strait, and leading up the main body to the eastern exit about the island of Psyttaleia, whence it advanced to the conflict in the straits on the following morning. Leake, however, came to the conclusion that the words of Herodotus must be interpreted differently, and maintained that the Greeks were enclosed the previous night by the Persians pushing forward their fleet along the Attic coast within the straits until their advance guard rested upon the island to the west of the town and their opponents. He accordingly inserted a map in his 'Demi of Attica,' representing the Persians drawn up in this long line on the Attic shore, and the Greeks facing them toward the north, ready for battle in front of the town of Salamis, and within the bay. The tyranny of the pictured thought is even greater than the tyranny of the written word. This map has been repeated with slight variations to the present time, and its positions have been accepted by most of our historians and commentators, notwithstanding its ignoring Diodorus and bringing Herodotus into conflict with Æschylus. Professor Goodwin has studied the matter on the spot, making frequent excursions to Salamis and the opposite Attic shores during the autumn and spring of his residence at Athens, and contends, with a wealth of argument and exact acquaintance with the topography, that the movement of the Persians into the Bay of Salamis could not have taken place the night before the battle. He urges three general objections:

"(1) The channel which is thus made the scene of the battle is so narrow in some places that, if the Persians had taken up the supposed position in the night, the Greeks could not have embarked and formed their line in the morning directly in the face of the enemy (only a few hundred yards distant) without interference. (2) It would have been impossible for the supposed movement to be effected without alarming the Greeks at Salamis, especially as it was almost certainly a moonlight night. And yet they suspected nothing of the movement (and even Themistocles, who had advised Xerxes, knew nothing of it) until Aristides informed them that they were already shut in. But Aristides had come over from Ægina to the west or the southwest side of Salamis, having escaped the Persians on his way with great difficulty; and he knew only of movements in that direction, and nothing of any enemy within the straits. (3) The occupation of Psyttaleia by Xerxes shows that he expected this island to be the centre of the sea-fight; and Plutarch gives his own opinion that it actually was so. Æschylus beyond doubt represents the Persians as entering the straits of Salamis after daybreak to begin the battle. This is confirmed by Diodorus (*i. e.*, Ephorus) and Plutarch. Their line or 'stream' fell into some confusion in entering the narrows; and they never succeeded in regaining their order of battle, being immediately met by the Greeks as they passed the long point of Salamis."

Although this view is inconsistent with the common interpretation of Herodotus, Professor Goodwin is not content to reject the authority of that writer, like a noted English editor of a recent edition, who pounces upon every opportunity with all the avidity of the pseudo-Plutarch; on the contrary, with the spirit of the true scholar, he queries if the discrepancy be not in ourselves, instead of in the ancient writer. He knows full well that language is a feeble instrument to convey facts, and that indefinite topographical expressions, plain enough to the writer himself, are easily misunderstood by others, especially if they have never studied the localities

themselves. To be convinced of this we have only to compare the commentators of Herodotus upon the passage relating to the Samian aqueduct, with the recent account of it as reopened and fully investigated.

From a minute examination of the original text Professor Goodwin concludes that it is the commentators that are wrong, and not Herodotus; that of the two crucial passages, Hdt. viii. 76, and viii. 85, the first describes the Persians as bringing up their west wing to Salamis, encircling it to the south, and posting a squadron at the Megaric Straits during the night before the battle; while the other calls the Persian right, at the opening of the battle the next day, "the wing toward Eleusis and the west," and their left, "the wing toward the east and Piræus"—the line in which they streamed through the narrows to attack the Greeks who were drawn up across the bay from northwest to southeast. This interpretation, of which the original will fairly and legitimately admit, will, it is hoped, hereafter be accepted.

Patroclus and Penelope: a Chat in the Saddle.

By Theodore Ayrauld Dodge, Brevet-Lieut.-Col. U. S. A. (retired list), author of 'The Campaign of Chancellorsville,' 'A Bird's-Eye View of Our Civil War,' etc., etc. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1885. Pp. 167.

COLONEL DODGE has given the beginner in the art of horsemanship the best possible introduction to his pleasurable task. There are many overlearned books on the subject, which baffle the beginner by their details: they make a serious business of sport, and are about as agreeable reading as a manual of cavalry tactics. The author has avoided this by presenting his teaching in the form of chatty lectures from the saddle. The pages devoted, at the outset, to affectionate praise of the horses whose names give the first title to the book, are well calculated to move the young horseman to that loving relation with his partner which is the basis of all good horsemanship. The author has had a much wider store of practical experience in horsemanship than his predecessors in this field of instruction. He knows the English system well, and is an admirer of the courage and practical skill in rough horsemanship which mark their across-country riding; but he knows the merits of the Continental school too well to treat that form of equitation with the ignorant contempt which it receives in most English writing on the subject. Those who have had anything like his measure of experience in England and on the Continent will probably agree with him in his estimate of the skill shown in the art, which is in substance that the English are bold riders, but on the whole less skilled in the art of horsemanship than the Continental peoples. In sports, even more than in graver matters, experts are apt to become wedded to the system in which they have achieved their success. Our author shows a liberal spirit in his acceptance of the several methods of using the horse in the varied conditions of different peoples. He sees that the cowboy on his broncho has very different conditions to meet from those of the British sportsman on his hunter.

Without going into the details which most writers have thought necessary, Colonel Dodge gives the beginner a sufficient body of clear instructions for all the work which is before him. He has an evident prejudice for the admirable system of Baucher, whom he well terms the "father of fine horsemanship," but he troubles the pupil with little of its minutiae. Beyond the mere rudiments he finds nothing to commend in riding schools. His rule is, "Learn yourself what a horse should know and how to teach him." The horseman who will follow this advice

will have a measure of profit and satisfaction in his work which is denied to those who use horses trained by others. There is something very wholesome in the relations which the rider establishes with a quick-witted saddle-horse if he carefully trains him. If the work is well done, the horseman may feel that union of the animal's strength with his own intelligence which is embodied in the fabled Centaur. The ordinary rider, though he may be well trained in the important business of keeping his seat, has no trace of that keen sympathy with his beast, that quick understanding of his movements, which is the basis of all excellence in horsemanship and the source of the greatest diversion in that occupation. The beginner who will follow the excellent and simple rules of training given by our author will be sure to win success in the art and a great deal of pleasure by the way. The only exception which can be taken to these rules is the omission of the requirement of *bare-back* riding as a means of giving independence of the use of stirrups. It is perhaps too much to expect this part of the practice except on Southern plantations and in military schools.

The fourteen heliotype prints from instantaneous photographs, for illustrations of this nature, are exceedingly well done. Those who are disposed to criticise the attitude of the horseman as shown in these pictures should bear in mind the fact that one of his legs was left at Gettysburg.

Lyrics of the Law. A recital of songs and verses pertinent to the law and the legal profession, selected from various sources. By J. Greenbag Croke. San Francisco: Sumner, Whitney & Co. 1884.

THIS volume contains a considerable body of humorous legal verse, drawn from a great many different sources, English and American, none of it of much value to any but the professional public, and much of it of little value to that. Professional humor is apt to be involuntarily exclusive, and many of the so-called poems in this collection must necessarily be unintelligible to all but lawyers. The rule in Shelley's case, rich in associations both serious and droll to a lawyer, means nothing to a layman. To be put in the way of enjoying the wit and humor which is involved in it, requires a special education. A great deal of the humor even then comes from the sudden conversion of a specially dry, grave, and musty legal rule into food for human laughter. A simpler kind of joke is that which pursues the profession through all literature, and attributes to it a dishonorable inclination to substitute the motive of private gain for the loftier impulse which the work of administering justice is supposed to imply. From the time of the decision between the rival claimants to the oyster, this jest has been highly relished not only by the laity, but by the profession itself, until in our day it has often become hard to make out whether the laughter it invariably causes is produced by a feeling that it is a good joke, or by a suspicion that plunder has become a general professional "rule of action." A simpler and more innocent sort of humor, which is quite as much relished outside the profession as in its ranks, is that represented by the "Lawyer's Ode to Spring," consisting entirely in the misapplied use of legal phraseology. Who wrote the verses we do not know, but the version here given is in some minor respects inaccurate, at least according to that which we have always followed; and in the interest of accuracy and of a modest and retiring poet, we give what we believe to be the correct reading:

"Whereas on certain boughs and sprays
Now divers birds are heard to sing,
And sundry flowers their heads upraise,
To hail the coming on of spring:

"The songs of these said birds arouse
The memory of our youthful hours,
As green as those said sprays and boughs,
As fresh and sweet as those said flowers.
"The birds aforesaid, happy pairs!
Love 'mid the aforesaid boughs and shrines,
In freehold nest, to them, their heirs,
Administrators, and assigns.
"Oh, bluest term of Cupid's court!
Where tender platitudes actions bring,
Season of frolic and of sport,
Hail, as aforesaid, coming spring!"

Jellyfish, Starfish, and Sea-Urchins. By G. J. Romanes. [International Scientific Series, vol. xlix.] 8vo, xii, 323 pp. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1885.

THIS volume is devoted to an account of the author's experiments and researches on the primitive nervous systems possessed by the radiated animals mentioned in the title. The work first appeared in the publications of the Royal Society, and this expansion of it is accompanied by the original illustrations. The question whether any nervous tissue is present in the jellyfishes has long been the subject of persistent investigation by many naturalists, on account of its particular importance to the study of biology. Nervous tissue had been clearly shown to be present in all animals of higher structure than jellyfishes, so that it was of much importance to ascertain whether or not the first occurrence of this tissue took place in this group of animals. But, notwithstanding much diligent research, up to the time when the author began his work, there was so little agreement in the results obtained that Huxley, summing up the matter less than twenty years ago, announced that no nervous system had yet been discovered in any of these animals. The result of the author's experiments was to demonstrate the existence of a very low grade of nervous system, differently developed in different groups of genera, and even in different but allied species, the whole forming, as it were, the introductory stages to the more specialized systems existing in higher groups of animals.

The book before us consists entirely of the description of the work performed and the statement of the logical deductions therefrom. This has been prepared with great clearness and comprehensibility. There is nothing that the ordinary reader cannot understand as he proceeds. To the student interested in the general subject it presents a convenient summary of facts not otherwise easily accessible; while the general reader may gain from it not only some knowledge of primitive nervous systems, but also a clearer idea of the manner in which a competent investigator takes up and carries on researches of a scientific kind.

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Butler, A. H. *Walton's Lives of St. John Donne, Sir Henry Wotton, Mr. Richard Hooker, Mr. George Herbert, and Dr. Robert Sanderson.* Scribner & Welford.
Burroughs, J. *Wake Robin.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.
Del Mar, A. *A History of Money in Ancient Countries, from the Earliest Times to the Present.* Scribner & Welford.
De Amicis, E. *Studies of Paris. [The Travellers' Series.]* G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.25.
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Pusey, Prof. E. B. The Minor Prophets, with a Commentary. Vol. II. Micah, Nahum, Habakkuk, Zephaniah, Hagai, Zechariah, Malachi. Funk & Wagnalls. \$3.
Pyle, H. Within the Capes. Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.

Rees, J. The Life of Edwin Forrest, with Reminiscences and Personal Recollections. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. \$2.
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Ruskin, J. Rossetti Songs of Tuscany. Part VI. John Wiley & Sons.
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